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ABSTRACT

This booklet contains a special report on AIDS prevention education, together with reviews and reports of recent documents selected from the collection of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific. Divided into five parts, part 1, "Reports," contains the essay "AIDS Education and the School Curriculum: The Challenge for the '90s." Part 2, "Reviews of Recent Publications," includes: (1) "Training Literacy Personnel"; (2) "Teachers: Agents of Quality Education"; (3) "Effects of Economic Recession on Universal Primary Education"; (4) "Multiple Shift Schooling: Pros and Cons"; (5) "Reviewing Educational Reforms in Asia"; (6) "Adult Education in Thailand"; (7) "Improving Primary Education"; (8) "Educate or Perish"; (9) "Services Students with Visual Impairment Receive"; (10) "From Literacy to Education for All"; (11) "Learning Strategies for Post-Literacy and Continuing Education"; (12) "Status of Educational Research in Southeast Asia"; (13) "Effects of Decentralized Educational Decision-Making on the Curriculum"; (14) "Stimulating Development of a Child"; and (15) "Improve Quality of Workforce." Parts 3-5 contain annotations on Asia/Pacific documents, sources and addresses of documents reviewed in this issue and a list of recent publications (supplement to list of publications, 1991). (EH)

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Reviews, Reports and Notes

UNESCO PRINCIPAL REGIONAL OFFICE
FOR ASIA AND THE PACIFIC
BANGKOK

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This publication contains special reports on AIDS prevention education, together with reviews and reports of recent documents selected from the collection of the UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific. We invite officials of Member States in the region, members of international organizations and all interested readers to send recent publications for possible review or mention in future issues, as well as special reports on new education policies or major programmes.

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Reports

AIDS EDUCATION AND THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM: THE CHALLENGE FOR THE '90s

Background

It was in 1981 that the first cases of an unusual breakdown in the human immune system were reported in the United States. This was to be the beginning of what soon turned out to be an infection of a pandemic nature. Now ten years later, more than 150 countries have notified the World Health Organization (WHO) of nearly 450,000 cases of the acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS) in men, women and children. Due to under-reporting, under-diagnosis and reporting delays, WHO believes that the actual number of persons with AIDS is as high as 1.5 million.[1] According to the same source, 5 to 6 million men, and another 3 to 4 million women,[2] are currently infected with the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), the causative virus underlying AIDS.

If these figures are considered to be on the high side for a new infection, estimates for the near future are simply staggering. WHO projections indicate that by the year 2000, there will be total of 30 to 40 million men, women and children affected by HIV since the beginning of the epidemic.[3] HIV-infected women have already given birth to 3 million children, and one-third of them also similarly infected. Most people with HIV become seriously ill and die within eight to ten years of infection. By the year 2000 it is estimated that there will be 10 to 15 million orphans as a result of AIDS.[4]

The AIDS pandemic reached the Asia and the Pacific region much later than the other regions.[5] This, in fact, led to a false sense of complacency

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1. Merson, M.H. *AIDS in the 1990s: Meeting the challenge, World Bank/IMF annual meeting*, Bangkok, October 1991. Excerpts have been published in AIDSED Newsletter, No. 1/1992, pp. 18-19 and 24-28.

2. Ibid

3. Ibid

4. Ibid

5. See further, Peterson, G. *The epidemiological situation of HIV/AIDS in Asian and Pacific countries*. AIDSED Newsletter, No. 2/1991, pp. 18-22

at a time when the rest of the world had already established machinery to develop national AIDS programmes. By the end of 1991, only a few Asian countries, and a few small Pacific island states, had not reported even a single case of AIDS. In the Asia and Pacific region, Australia has reported almost 3,000 cases, while Japan, New Zealand and Thailand have already reported more than 100 AIDS cases each. Epidemiological evidence points to an exponential increase in HIV infection and AIDS in certain other countries in the region as well.

With the eradication of smallpox and with the availability of a drug or vaccine for most illnesses and infections, it was not unnatural to expect that a miracle drug or vaccine would help eradicate this virus. But after the first ten years of the pandemic, no such drug had been developed. It is in this context that "AIDS Education" has come to be recognized as an important preventive strategy. At an early stage in the pandemic itself, the modes of HIV transmission were identified; it then became possible to formulate preventive strategies.

HIV is not transmitted through casual contact, thus permitting persons already infected with the virus to go about their daily activities without risk of infecting others with whom they come into close contact. HIV is transmitted only through three modes: [6]

1. Through sexual intercourse (from an infected person to his or her sexual partner - man to woman, woman to man, man to man, and woman to woman) or donated semen. ["Sexual intercourse" refers to penetrative penile-vaginal, penile-anal or oral-genital contact].

2. From exposure to blood, blood products, or transplanted organs or tissues. [Exposure to HIV-infected blood may occur as a result of the transfusion of unscreened blood, the reuse of contaminated syringes and needles e.g. by intravenous (IV) drug users, or in other settings].

3. From an infected mother to her fetus or infant, before, during, or shortly after birth (perinatal transmission).

Why AIDS Education?

Many an AIDS educator would like to see 'AIDS Education' being added as a core or main subject or even as an optional subject in the school curriculum, but in practice this may prove to be both difficult and time-consuming because of existing curriculum demands or administrative

6 WHO *Prevention of sexual transmission of human immunodeficiency virus*. Geneva, 1990, p. 1.

inflexibility.[7] The justification for the inclusion of "AIDS Education" has to be always clearly and cogently advanced.

There are many reasons which could be advanced as to why AIDS education deserves to be accorded a prominent place in the curriculum. Without any pretensions as to exhaustiveness, some of the possible arguments are enumerated below:

- **AIDS IS A SERIOUS PROBLEM INVOLVING LARGE NUMBERS THAT IT NEEDS TO BE ACCORDED PRIORITY IN SCHOOLS**

The first ten years of the AIDS pandemic have served to reinforce our perception of AIDS as an urgent and important problem. It continues to be intractable, even after having already exacted a heavy toll.

No other public health problem in recent times has assumed such dimensions as the AIDS pandemic. It has received the attention of all forms of mass media, even in some of the remotest parts of the world where the radio is the only source of contact with the outside world.

Given the amount of publicity and attention the pandemic has already generated, it is inevitable that school children will know something about it. Some children will obviously know more than others, but it is a matter of time before all will hear or read about both HIV and AIDS. In some countries posters are conspicuously displayed at bus and railway stations, and other public places where the public has access to. In Thailand, for instance, AIDS-related information is disseminated at village fairs by using portable cassette-players.

While knowledge is better than ignorance, when it comes to a serious matter like HIV infection which can make all the difference between life and death, it is important that whatever information that is disseminated or available in the public domain reflects scientifically and factually accurate data about the virus, its modes of transmission and possible preventive measures. Incorrect information, data and facts will not only be harmful but also counter-productive to attitudinal and behavioural changes. Moreover, students have a right to free access to honest information[8] and the school environment is one which can fulfil the conditions required to translate this right into reality.

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7. Hoyle, E. *The politics of school management*. Hodder and Stoughton, London, 1986.

8. Apple, M.W. *Ideology and curriculum*. New York and London, Routledge, 1990. p. 164

- **AIDS IS AN ISSUE RELEVANT TO MANY AREAS OF THE CURRICULUM**

The AIDS pandemic has so many dimensions to it that the issues brought in its wake are directly and indirectly relevant to many subject-areas which are in the school curriculum either as core subjects or as optional subjects. Awareness of current issues is a necessary attribute of the professionalism and leadership which teachers must display at all times.[9]

AIDS-related issues are relevant to many curricular areas. In a typical school curriculum in Asian schools at least ten to fifteen subjects can be identified as being directly or indirectly relevant to AIDS-related issues. Examples include at least the following:

1. Health Education and Hygiene
2. Population Education
3. Sex Education
4. Social Science
5. Biology
6. History
7. Cultural and Religious Studies
8. Mathematics
9. Geography
10. Civics/Government

While the relevance of AIDS-related issues to most of the above subject-areas is self-evident, the relevance even to others becomes clear when one considers the multi-faceted nature of the AIDS pandemic. It is not a purely medical or public health problem; it has political, social, economic, cultural and religious dimensions to it. Taking the subject of mathematics, for instance, the mortality and morbidity figures, together with projections over the next five or ten years, can be used as examples by mathematics teachers to explain certain concepts and methods. A lesson in geography, for instance, can be the starting point for a useful discussion on how migration facilitates the transmission of certain viruses. In certain African countries village life has been totally disrupted due to AIDS. What implications will these have on food production, animal life, migration and ecological issues? These are but a few of the AIDS-related issues which can be considered.

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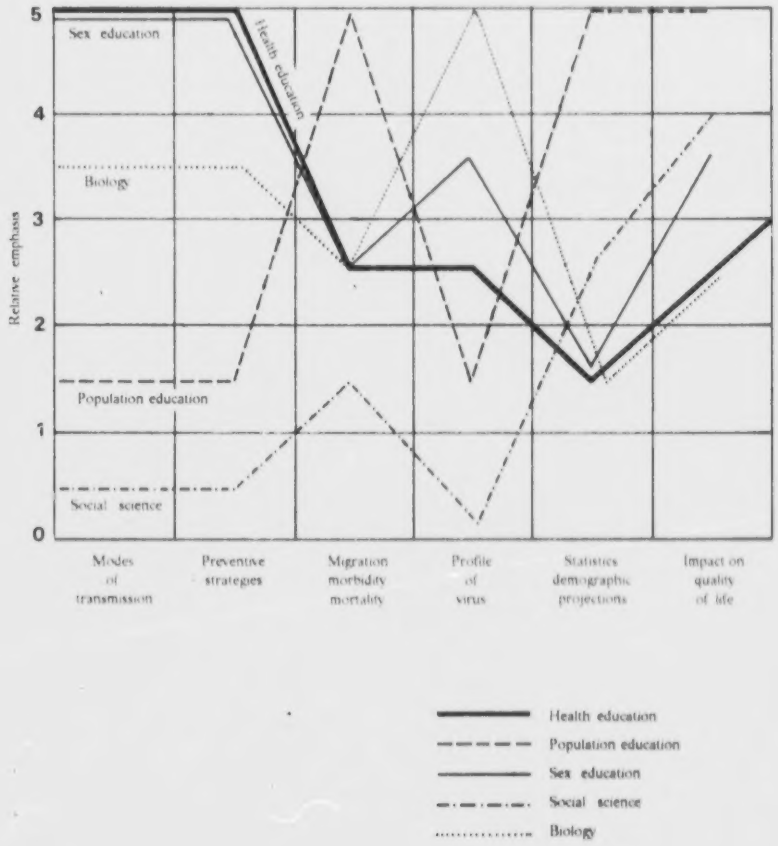
9. Carr, W. ed. *Quality in teaching*. The Falmer Press. London. 1989

The relative emphasis which a teacher can place on AIDS-related subjects, components or elements will differ according to the subject being taught. Some subjects, for instance, sex education, will permit the consideration of certain issues in greater detail than a subject such as social science.

Taking the first five of the 10 subjects listed above, it is possible, by way of example, to make a preliminary assessment of the relevance of each of these subjects to selected AIDS-related subjects, components or elements (Diagram 1).

Diagram 1. Selected AIDS-related Subjects, Components or Elements



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In the classroom setting teachers need to be ever vigilant and responsive[10] to questions which might be raised by students based on their knowledge of current issues. Teachers themselves need an orientation to the entire question of AIDS so that they could be ready, willing and able to respond to issues raised in the classroom. Where appropriate, a teacher who has gained advanced training in an AIDS education programme can be invited to respond to those issues which are beyond the normal competence of those teachers who have had only a brief and initial orientation to the subject. Whatever be the internal arrangements which a particular school might wish to work out in consultation with the teachers, school counsellors, school nurses, parents and student leaders, what is important in this context is that AIDS education must find a place in the school curriculum.

- **HIV PREVENTION DEPENDS ON CHANGING VALUES, ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOUR AND THE SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT CAN BE A MAJOR INFLUENCE**

In the absence of a drug or vaccine, the role of education and health promotion has become firmly entrenched as the only viable course of action to help prevent people from becoming infected or of infecting others, if they are already infected.

HIV transmission, through unprotected sexual activities and through exposure to infected blood as a result of IV drug use involving used needles and syringes, can be prevented by appropriate value, attitudinal, and behavioural changes. With regard to sexual transmission, prevention depends largely on abstaining from sex; remaining within a monogamous sexual relationship; and refraining from having unprotected sex with partners whose HIV-status is unknown or who have multiple partners or who engage in IV drug use.

Prevention of HIV transmission through IV drug use depends largely on phasing-out the dependency on drugs which are intravenously administered or on refraining from using contaminated or used needles and syringes.

In most communities, the majority of the young spend a good part of their formative years within the school environment. The school environment creates a significant influence on the formation of opinions, views, attitudes and values, all of which, independently or in concert, have an effect on current or future behaviour patterns. The exact extent to which a particular

10. Belson, M. *Understanding classroom behaviour*. ACER, Victoria, 1988.

type of behavioural response will be influenced can never be prognosticated with any great degree of certainty, but what is important to note is that every opportunity to exert a positive influence should be availed of.

The school environment does provide ample opportunities to exert this kind of healthy influence. Interactions between teachers and students and peer group influences can have a far-reaching impact on a person's value system, attitudes and behaviour. In the context of HIV prevention, such interactions and influences can benefit by an exposition of the modes of HIV transmission and preventive methods.

- **STUDENTS CAN BE AGENTS OF CHANGE**

Outside the school environment, students spend most of their time at home with parents and siblings or with other peers in the neighbourhood or community. This socialization process is often characterized by a free and frank exchange of views on attitudes towards life and work, preferences for different lifestyles, and on stereotyped models to be followed or avoided.

Knowledge about AIDS-related matters gained as a result of exposure to an AIDS education course or programme at school can often be shared with those at home or in the community, thus permitting prevention messages to reach a wider audience. With the amount of mass media publicity now accorded to AIDS, it is difficult to conceive of a situation where the issue of AIDS will never come up for discussion.

'Educate a Woman and Educate a Nation' is the caption of a new UNESCO Regional Office literacy poster.

This caption is intended to convey the simple but often forgotten message that it is very important to educate women, for instance, because they in turn can share the knowledge and the wisdom of their learning with others at home, workplace or even in the community, and thus influence others.

- **NATIONAL AIDS PREVENTION PLANS UNDERLINE IMPORTANCE OF AIDS EDUCATION**

Last, but not least, a convincing case for AIDS education can be made out by drawing the attention of the school authorities to national AIDS prevention plans which accord priority to AIDS education for school children, youth, and the general public. Such plans of action are in place in most countries, and not infrequently these have been drafted in consultation with relevant ministries, including education and higher education. In some countries, national AIDS prevention plans have been endorsed by the cabinet or executive branch, and thus have the blessings of all the relevant sectors.

National plans reflect the collective wisdom of thought on the best strategies of prevention for a country and any endorsement on the role of education in such a plan needs to be translated into action with the least possible delay, using whatever resources that are available.

The Goals of AIDS Education

The main rationale for AIDS education is that with better knowledge and awareness of the dynamics of HIV transmission it is possible to encourage and motivate people to refrain from such behaviours as may result in acquiring or transmitting the virus. We know from experience, however, that it is not easy to bring about changes in individuals, especially where sexual- and drug injecting-behaviours are concerned. This difficulty brings into the forefront the basic issue of what "AIDS Education" is all about or should be about.

The only good feature about HIV, at least from a preventive point of view, is that it is difficult to 'catch'.[11] In most instances, it is the injudicious behaviour or conduct of an individual which places himself or herself at increased risk of exposure to the virus.

Given the known modes of HIV transmission, and the kinds of risk activities conductive to the spread of the virus, what should AIDS education programmes seek to achieve?

Basically, there are three fundamental goals:

1. To create a better understanding and awareness of the nature of the virus, the modes transmission, preventive methods, as well as the medical and social implication of HIV/AIDS.
2. To assist the target audience to understand the importance of the preventive methods for themselves and for others.
3. To instill in the target audience a commitment to developing such attitudes, values and behaviours as will help minimize the possibilities of being infected or of infecting others.

A number of teaching and instructional modalities will have to be deployed to enable the target audience to understand the nature and implications of HIV/AIDS.

Depending on social and cultural factors, different programmes will emphasize different values, attitudes and behaviours. Where social mores do not permit open and frank discussions concerning matters relating to sex, for

11. Rogers, D.E. and Gellin, B.G. *The bright spot about AIDS: it is very tough to catch. AIDS*, Vol. 4(7), 1990. pp. 695-696.

instance, appropriate approaches will have to be devised to deal with the sexual transmission of HIV. This could be done in the context of a general discussion of sexually transmitted diseases or by way of clarifying attitudes and values concerning family formation and family life.

There can be any number of definitions of an educational discipline or subject-area. The choice of words that go into the formula often reflects the perceptions of those associated with the endeavour. A person with a certain bias or opinion may wish to emphasize certain aspects to the neglect of others. Due to social, cultural and legal reasons, some may wish to avoid using certain terms in a definition. This is true, for instance, with regard to courses dealing with sexuality or human reproduction. In one country, for instance, laws dealing with funding of educational programmes expressly prohibit AIDS educational programmes which seek to promote, directly or indirectly, homosexuality. Thus, those in receipt of federal funds would like to ensure that they do not adopt a definition of AIDS education which will in any way convey the impression that the programme seeks to promote homosexuality.

Even under ideal circumstances it is difficult to formulate a definition which will be appropriate for all educational and social systems. It is more so difficult with a subject like AIDS which is closely linked to socially and culturally sensitive subjects. Subject to this limitation, an attempt has been made to formulate a definition for consideration:

> An activity of an educational nature, seeking to promote, through the provision of information, guidance or counselling, appropriate attitudinal and value changes and behavioural modifications conducive to minimizing the spread of HIV infection and AIDS and the impact on society".

Embodied in this definition are certain useful elements which help to bring out the characteristic features of AIDS Education:

1. It is basically an educational activity. The emphasis on the educational nature of the activity is to focus attention on the need for a well developed and structured AIDS education programme, in contrast to an information campaign, for instance, which is of a very short duration. Such campaigns are no doubt important, but do not necessarily fulfil the total content of an educational activity. AIDS education is more than the provision of basic information, in that it deals with attitudes, feelings, values, roles and functions and, with behaviours.

2. AIDS Education programmes provide information, guidance and counselling. While the information dissemination role is

self-evident, sometimes not adequate attention has been accorded to the role to guide and counsel the target audience. Guidance and counselling will be required not only to clarify values and issues concerning what constitutes risk- or high risk-behaviour, but also about screening for HIV antibodies, living with HIV seropositive persons and AIDS patients, and on strategies to cope with the many behavioural and social problems associated with HIV and AIDS.

3. AIDS education programmes aim at promoting appropriate attitudinal and value changes and behavioural modifications. The provision of information of a general nature by itself is not enough; in order to have an impact on the HIV/AIDS problem, AIDS education programmes must make a sustained effort at promoting those values, attitudes and behaviours which will be conducive to minimize the spread of HIV infection and its impact on society.

4. The focus of AIDS education will be on minimizing the spread of HIV infection and AIDS and the impact on society. While the spread of HIV can be minimized by behavioural changes, the impact of AIDS on society can be minimized by developing appropriate attitudes and values. Such attitudes and values will help to avoid discrimination and prejudice against persons with HIV or AIDS or who engage in high-risk behaviour. Discrimination and prejudice are not only counter-productive, but will also undermine public health efforts to deal with the problem.

While there can be any number of definitions of 'AIDS Education', it is useful to formulate one which is comprehensive and based on an integrated approach to the HIV/AIDS problem. When AIDS-related education programmes are developed, a definition must be kept in proper perspective to ensure that the curriculum addresses the different components and elements essential to achieve the goals.

Countries in the Asia and Pacific region are at a very early stage in the formulation of in-school AIDS education programmes. Nevertheless, a few countries have already made some progress. The following two case studies demonstrate the problems encountered and the approaches developed to overcome them in South Australia[12] and in the South Pacific.[13]

12. Julie Taylor and Christopher Caudle. HIV/AIDS and sexually education: The South Australian experience, AIDSED Newsletter, No. 2/1991. pp. 5-8

13. Kondo, A. *AIDS education project in the Pacific: some lessons learned*, AIDSED Newsletter, No. 1/1991. pp. 6-10.

While these two case studies are not necessarily representative of the experiences of all countries in the region, the case studies nevertheless draw attention to several critical issues which need to be addressed in developing and implementing in-school AIDS education programmes.

CASE STUDY I
HIV/AIDS AND SEXUALLY EDUCATION: THE SOUTH AUSTRALIAN EXPERIENCE

Introduction

The Education Department of South Australia in collaboration with the Family Planning Association (FPA) and the Child Adolescent and Family Health Service (CAFHS) developed and implemented a school HIV/AIDS education programme in South Australia.

Background

AIDS education was formally introduced into South Australian secondary schools in late 1987 with two principle objectives:

Firstly, to increase the knowledge of young people in AIDS aetiology, AIDS prevention and risk factors;

Secondly, to increase knowledge about common AIDS preventive strategies and to increase the likelihood of young people practising safe behaviours.

To achieve the above objectives, a major teacher training and development programme was developed and conducted to equip teachers to return to their respective primary and secondary schools and implement HIV/AIDS programmes.

In 1988 two full-time AIDS Education Project Officers were appointed.

The first phase of the project began with widespread community consultations to ensure the support of a number of important groups. These groups included parent and principal organizations, health agencies, Area Directors of Education and the South Australian Institute of Teachers.

Teacher training and development

The second phase was to conduct a needs analysis of teachers in the schools to identify priorities for HIV/AIDS training and development programmes.

It was clear from the survey that training activities were needed to:

- provide relevant and up-to-date knowledge about HIV and AIDS.

- model appropriate classroom teaching strategies;
- provide 'teacher-friendly' resources;
- increase levels of comfort when teaching about AIDS and sexuality; and
- articulate a coherent rationale for teaching about HIV/AIDS and sexuality in schools.

The groups targeted were secondary school teachers, including school counsellors in the first year and primary and junior primary teachers in the second year.

In addition to these two major groups, teachers of senior secondary students, teachers of intellectually- and hearing-impaired students, teachers of recently arrived migrant students, teachers of aboriginal students and teachers in Catholic and independent schools were also targeted.

An essential feature of the training and development programme was the inter-agency approach. The FPA and CAFHS, two community health agencies, were closely involved at all stages. These agencies have been an integral part of the programme, providing facilitators for workshops, and conducting parent meetings and workshops. They were also involved in the development of teaching resources and strategies and also in team teaching with less confident teachers.

The involvement of these health agencies provided classroom teachers access to expertise in this area, and highlighted the importance of AIDS-related issues for teachers and parents. Without the support of these agencies the Education Department in South Australia could not have offered such an extensive training and development programme.

The training and development workshops were conducted over two days. Because of the interactive nature of the activities, participation was restricted to 30 participants per workshop.

During a three year period, key teachers from approximately 90 per cent of public schools in South Australia and a large number of Catholic and independent schools attended these workshops.

The training and development workshops were designed on adult learning principles and provided a range of learning experiences for the teachers. Workshops used a range of classroom teaching strategies in the area of HIV/AIDS and sexuality education.

Many of the strategies involved working in groups of various sizes, ranging from large groups to small groups and pairs. In addition to addressing the needs mentioned earlier, the workshops also included:

- clarification of values and attitudes related to sexuality;
- social skills development - including, communication, assertiveness and decision-making; and
- drama and role play.

Teacher comfort levels in teaching about sexuality were increased by using language appropriate for the purpose. The workshops were based on practical experiences and situations.

The nature of AIDS education

Education for HIV/AIDS prevention in South Australian schools is part of the Health Education curriculum. In secondary schools, it is generally taught within the subject of Human Sexuality which also includes sexually transmitted diseases. HIV/AIDS education may also be taught as part of the Diseases of Lifestyle topic. In primary schools, it is predominantly taught within the Disease and Disability topic and as part of the Growth and Development topic.

There are two main dimensions to the schools AIDS education programme. Firstly, they aim to foster a caring and understanding attitude towards people who are living with AIDS, and others affected by HIV and AIDS (e.g. family, friends and colleagues). To ensure that the programmes are balanced, physical, social and emotional aspects of HIV and sexuality issues are addressed. Secondly, in order to empower students, they are encouraged to accept responsibility for their own behaviour and to make informed choices. To this end, students are provided with up-to-date information relevant to their particular age group.

Opportunities are provided for young people to clarify their attitudes and values related to HIV/AIDS and sexuality issues.

Perhaps the most important component is that of helping young people practise and develop the social skills that they will need to reduce the risk of HIV transmission.

Successful teaching programmes can either reinforce existing health-enhancing behaviours or they may help change behaviours which compromise the health of young people. The South Australian programmes sought to help young people to develop a positive self-esteem.

Finally, in order to make the school programmes effective, interaction between the schools, community groups and parents was encouraged. It is important for each school to have the support of its local community groups and parent bodies and to give these groups the opportunity to be involved in contributing to the development and expansion of the sexuality and HIV/AIDS programme.

Evaluation of the South Australian school programme

The evaluation exercise had two objectives: (1) to determine how well the training and development workshops and materials for education about AIDS had been used by classroom teachers; and (2) to determine the effect of the HIV/AIDS and sexuality programmes on student knowledge, attitudes and behaviour.

An independent evaluation consultant was employed to evaluate the programme. The following methodology was used:

For objective (1):

a) focus groups were used to conduct the qualitative part of the evaluation;

b) an analysis of 700 conference journals identified by primary school teachers;

c) a quantitative telephone survey of teachers who had attended a workshop.

For objective (2):

a) a quantitative survey of 490 secondary school students;

b) a pre- and post-knowledge questionnaire administered to approximately 400 primary school students.

These were some of the key findings of the evaluation:

1. Ninety-two per cent of surveyed teachers claimed that after the workshops they felt comfortable and confident to implement HIV/AIDS education.

2. Ninety-eight per cent of secondary, and 54 per cent of primary teachers, had already implemented AIDS education as a result of having attended a workshop. A further 20 per cent of primary teachers were planning to implement a programme by the end of 1990. Junior primary school teachers are not expected to formally introduce AIDS education programmes, hence the lower implementation rate in primary schools.

3. Ninety-two per cent of teachers stated that their school administration was supportive of AIDS education programmes taking place in the schools.

4. Ninety-two per cent of secondary teachers and 61 per cent of primary teachers stated that the parents of the school children were supportive of AIDS education programmes.

5. Ninety-six per cent of teachers were extremely positive about the inter-agency approach to AIDS education in South Australia.

6. Based on the student survey, there appeared to be a strong correlation between the time duration of AIDS education programmes and an increase in student knowledge and the development of positive attitudes toward people infected by HIV and AIDS.

Future directions

Future directions for South Australia's school based HIV/AIDS education programme include the development and production of an interactive computer programme and a peer education programme; and a greater emphasis on teaching strategies which address the links between AIDS, sexuality and drugs. It is also planned to develop lessons on caring for the sick, grieving and dying. As educators, the needs of sexually active young people, or those young people who use IV drugs cannot be ignored. At the same time, support must be provided to those young people who choose not to be sexually active and who choose not to use drugs.

Educating young people about HIV and AIDS is viewed as an important priority area in South Australia in order to maintain the low prevalence rate of HIV/AIDS in the state.

CASE STUDY II
AIDS EDUCATION PROJECT IN THE PACIFIC: SOME LESSONS LEARNED

Background

One of the pilot projects in the WHO/UNESCO collaboration to prevent AIDS is the School AIDS Education Project in the Pacific which began in 1989 with the goal of assisting Pacific Island countries in developing their own school AIDS education programmes. The first activity was the development of two prototype materials by regional representatives - "Education to Prevent AIDS/STD in the Pacific: A Teaching Guide for Secondary Schools", and "Education to Prevent AIDS/STD in the Pacific: A Guide for Teacher Training". This was followed by several other regional/sub-regional workshops/meetings to prepare countries to establish national school AIDS education programmes. At least 10 of the 15 countries participating in the project commenced trial in-school AIDS education projects in 1990; and the others followed in 1991.

While the formal evaluation of the joint WHO/UNESCO School AIDS Education Project is in progress, an analysis of some preliminary results of formative evaluation efforts, informal observations and comments based on experiences to date, can be made. A description of some of the major activities, issues faced and some lessons learned from the project might be useful to other countries in establishing and implementing in-school AIDS education programmes.

Establishing national programmes

1. Awareness and commitment of government officials

While there may be a general awareness of AIDS in all countries, this does not necessarily translate into an urgent call for a national school AIDS education programme. Since most AIDS prevention efforts are largely directed and co-ordinated by ministries of health, the officials concerned may consider the AIDS problem the sole responsibility of the health ministry and eschew attempts to collaborate with education authorities. 'Education' to some of them may mean merely information/communication via the mass media, brochures, posters, etc. targeted to the general public and selected groups viewed as 'high-risk'.

Furthermore, from an educator's perspective, because of the unavoidable discussion of sex, school AIDS education may not be given very strong support. It is also potentially controversial and hence, easy to dismiss. At issue is not the teaching about AIDS *per se*, but teaching about sex, and the familiar excuses are heard: "it is culturally unacceptable"; "it is too sensitive/controversial"; "we don't talk about sex"; "the curriculum is already overloaded"; "leave AIDS to the health department"; etc.

2. The nature of preventive education

In addition to the sensitivity of sex education, another difficulty in getting the support and commitment to in-school AIDS education from both health officials and educators, is the lack of understanding of the nature of preventive education. One high-level health official (a doctor) in a Pacific country, for example, insisted that the health department (without even consulting the education department) had already provided AIDS education in one of the high schools, implying that nothing more needed to be done. Upon further questioning, it was discovered that this 'education' was nothing more than a one-hour lecture on AIDS to an assembly of high school students.

There is, thus, an assumption that imparting *knowledge* alone is sufficient to lead to responsible behaviour. So is moralizing - telling students what is 'right' and 'wrong', the 'do's' and the 'don'ts' (especially the 'don'ts' - don't shoot drugs, don't have sex, etc.). The availability of the prototype materials which present a different view of preventive education, has proved to be very valuable, because decision-makers can now see what constitutes another kind of in-school AIDS education - one that stresses not only a sound knowledge base, but also responsibility, relationships, communication and decision-making. Without these materials, making decisions on a 'programme' would leave too much to an individual's pre-conceived ideas and prejudices, and the programme could degenerate into an academic discussion of the pros and cons of sex education, mostly unsubstantiated. However, the prototype materials have provided a concrete basis for evaluating a possible programme.

3. Collaboration between Ministries of Health and Education

Receiving support and commitment to in-school AIDS education from both the ministry of health and the ministry of education in most countries is a pre-requisite to any effective and viable programme.

The WHO/UNESCO Project adopted the approach of convening a high-level meeting of a National AIDS Committee (NAC) member (in all cases from the Ministry of Health) and an official from the Ministry of

Education in order to discuss collaboration and get their commitment, as well as to orient them to the prototype teaching materials as an example of preventive education on AIDS. Such meetings resulted, in most cases, in increased co-operation and collaboration. In some cases, an educator was appointed to the NAC, thereby bringing the different agencies together to plan a concerted effort towards achieving a common cause - AIDS prevention. In some countries, however, there was little follow-up. The main reason for this was probably that persons who wielded influence did not participate or if those who participated were in fact influential, they did little to stimulate action. This was confirmed by follow-up visits by the project co-ordinator.

One strategy which proved very successful at the meetings was the presence of a group of students who participated in the field testing of the prototype materials in Fiji. They gave the high-level participants a perspective of AIDS education from the intended target audience. After the panel session, a doctor from one of the Pacific Island countries remarked to the whole group that "... the kids know more about AIDS than we do". One of the best ways of convincing adults of the potentially positive outcomes of any programme is exposure to the views of a sample of the target group itself.

4. National AIDS Committees

The National AIDS Committee (NAC) (or similar entity) is the most important body in planning and supporting AIDS education generally, especially through the country's Medium Term Plan (MTP) assisted by WHO. Its functions include co-ordinating and supporting all AIDS prevention efforts in the country. In order to give support, credibility and urgency to the in-school AIDS education programme, it must be viewed not solely as the programme, of a government ministry, but as a major component of the *national* programme.

Where the representation of the education sector on the NAC has been strong, in-school AIDS education programmes have been given good support by the NAC. In this connection, mention should be made of the influence of the WHO AIDS staff who liaise with the NACs. They have been strong supporters of in-school AIDS education programmes in the Pacific and have provided valuable assistance in getting the NAC to extend its membership to officials from the ministry of education. WHO staff and consultants have also contributed significantly to the success of the regional workshops. Hence, the collaboration of WHO and UNESCO at the operational level can serve as a model for national collaboration between the ministry of health and the ministry of education.

5. Continuing support/monitoring

Individuals at the national level who are responsible for formulating and implementing school programmes and who are committed to AIDS education are the key to the success of national in-school AIDS education activities. Some countries have, subject to minor delays, implemented programmes as planned, while others seem to require more moral support and technical assistance. Since the incidence of AIDS/HIV is relatively low or non-existent in most Pacific Island countries, some administrators require further persuasion as to the importance of AIDS education for prevention. This continuing support is provided by the WHO/UNESCO project co-ordinator. His missions have provided stimulus for some countries to go beyond the planning stage.

While the training workshops have been perceived as worthwhile and successful in preparing trainers to conduct their own teacher training, there is still some reluctance on the part of certain educators and even the teacher-trainers to venture into new and sensitive subject-areas. Countries have welcomed the assistance and support of the project co-ordinator in national teacher training courses. In many countries, there needs to be a mechanism to provide such stimulus and support to monitor progress.

Developing in-school AIDS education curriculum and instructional materials

1. Placement of in-school AIDS education and institutionalization

In-school AIDS education has forced all countries to address issues of sexuality education and preventive education, not only in what to teach (content) and how to teach it (methods), but also where to teach (placement). Those countries with on-going school population education programmes have found it convenient and easier to integrate AIDS education into population education, especially if sexually transmitted diseases are covered, although the basic issues still need to be addressed.

Those countries without in-school population education programmes have generally been slower in initiating in-school AIDS education. Among other issues, these countries need to decide where AIDS education should be placed. In addition to the relationship of the subject-matter, the main reason for the positive co-relation between the existence of population education and the introduction of AIDS education, is that most of the people involved in population education (mostly on a part-time basis) will have the responsibility for in-school AIDS education. Hence, there are definite advantages in having a population education project/programme in the

country. Where there is such a programme it can be used as the entry point for AIDS education by involving the same personnel. Any separate health education programme would also be an appropriate entry point for AIDS education, as is the case in at least one country in the Pacific region.

It is important that AIDS education should become 'institutionalized', and not treated as a 'crash' programme or 'campaign' to be done for a brief period and then allowed to fade into oblivion. If population education is institutionalized and if AIDS education material is integrated into the population education curriculum, AIDS education has a much better chance of survival.

The process of developing AIDS education instructional materials should also become 'institutionalized', i.e. the development of AIDS education materials should also go through the usual review and approval procedures for curriculum and instructional materials. In one case, the standard procedure was not followed and the personal bias of the writer was clearly expressed in one of the lessons in relation to the description of certain group/sexual practices. In fact, in the case of AIDS education, the NAC could well become an additional channel for approval, at least to verify the accuracy of factual information and to update the data.

2. Adaptation of the prototype materials

At a regional workshop, most Pacific Island countries adapted the prototype instructional materials to suit their own situations. Some of the materials will probably be revised after the trial programmes are evaluated. The prototype instructional materials have so far proved to be very useful, not only as a specific example of an AIDS education guide, but also as providing a broader view of sexuality education. Approximately two-thirds of the 13 prototype lessons deal with values, attitudes, decision-making and communication skills which will, hopefully, lead to responsible sexual behaviour. The guides also recommend innovative participatory activities which will have application for addressing other relevant issues such as teenage pregnancy and alcohol and drug abuse.

3. Time allocation for AIDS education

One of the main problems in the implementation of in-school AIDS education is the time factor. Time has to be found to teach all of the lessons (16 in the revised version of the prototype), especially in those countries which have more or less adapted the entire prototype guide. It is hoped that decision-makers will, after the trials in their own countries, allocate sufficient time for the lessons which offer a balance of information dissemination and the development of attitudes and skills which will lead to responsible

behaviour. The "WHO/UNESCO Guide for School Health Education to Prevent AIDS and other Sexually Transmitted Diseases" has proved to be useful in formulating in-school AIDS education programmes.

Training of teacher trainers and teachers

1. Training workshops

The WHO/UNESCO project organized two sub-regional workshops for at least two teacher trainers from each of the participating countries, and assisted in several national teacher training workshops in preparation for trial teaching. These workshops were based on the prototype 'Guide for Teacher Training', which departs from the usual in-service courses which are structured on 'resource persons' making presentations with the teachers playing a passive role. This guide and the activities of the workshops are based on two premises:

a) Teachers teach a subject as they were taught;

b) Knowledge alone is not enough in developing responsible behaviour, i.e. students must be presented with real-life situations, explore their own values and feelings, understand consequences of alternative actions, make decisions, and even practice communicating these decisions, especially in relation to sexuality issues.

Apart from the lectures/presentations by local and outside consultants and videos to establish a firm knowledge base on AIDS, most of the workshops consisted of participatory activities, similar, if not identical, to those recommended for secondary school students, e.g. group work, role play, case studies, clarification of values, etc. These are intended to stimulate participants to examine their own values and attitudes relating to AIDS and sexuality and relationships, practice communication skills (e.g. how to say 'No'), and in general, get a "feel" for how students might feel.

Part of the first day was usually spent on climate-setting or warming up, fun activities to build rapport and to make participants feel at ease discussing sensitive issues. The time spent on these activities has proved to be worthwhile, as judged by the results of the post-workshop evaluation, as well as the friendly atmosphere, frank discussions and exchanges of experiences. The week usually culminated in peer teaching, where each participant planned and taught a short lesson to the other participants. Where video-taping facilities were available, the lessons were taped, and later viewed and critiqued.

2. Evaluation of workshops: a summary

The sub-regional workshops were evaluated by the participants with regard to relevance and usefulness for their own learning process and for preparing their own in-service courses for teachers who will teach AIDS education in secondary schools. For example, on a 5-point scale - 1 (low) to 5 (high) - the average ratings for the major categories of activities in the workshops were quite positive as shown below:

Knowledge update on AIDS	4.5
Values/attitudes towards HIV/AIDS carriers	4.25
Climate-setting activities	4.18
Peer teaching	4.06
Developing communications/decision-making skills	3.94
Use of case studies	3.94
Clarifying values	3.71

3. Peer teaching activity

The peer teaching activity has always been a highlight of the workshops. The participants - nervous at presenting sensitive materials in an unfamiliar style (as a facilitator as against the traditional authority figure) - had to prepare and present a lesson to their peers. In one notable case, a creative (and bold) teacher trainer pulled out a carved wooden penis from his pocket at an appropriate moment in a peer teaching lesson to demonstrate the use of a condom. Some of the 'students' were initially embarrassed, and shocked. But all were surprised, and this was followed by unrestrained laughter. While the use of a model penis for that particular lesson is not being suggested for secondary school students, at least it desensitized a sensitive issue for the teacher trainers - talking about condoms, and more so, demonstrating its use. (In some workshops, it was observed that some teachers did not even know what a condom looks like. Hence, it is recommended that a condom be unrolled and shown to teachers during the workshops).

One of the most important outcomes of the peer teaching activity is that teacher trainers and teachers become more at ease with using words like 'penis', 'intercourse', etc. - words they would normally use with embarrassment, if at all, in front of students, or even fellow teachers. This type of activity, along with discussions during the workshop, will help the trainers to teach sensitive topics without embarrassment, because as they use

the terms and hear them used by others, the terms become gradually less "sensitive".

Conclusion

Several of the Pacific Island countries are now implementing in-school AIDS education programmes on a trial basis. The evaluation of these trials will provide us with further insight into the effectiveness or otherwise of in-school AIDS education programmes in the Pacific Island countries. Of course, the most important evaluation to make is not through questionnaires; it is necessary to look at what actually happens in the classrooms, and to finally see how behavioural changes have had an impact on the HIV/AIDS situation in the country.

AIDSED Centre

The WHO/UNESCO AIDS Education and Health Promotion Materials Exchange Centre for Asia and the Pacific (AIDSED Centre) became fully operational in June 1990. By this time, the Population Education Advisory Service and the Population Education Clearinghouse of the UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific had already completed or set in motion a number of AIDS education activities:

1. A WHO/UNESCO Regional Consultative Seminar on School Education for the Prevention of AIDS in Asia and the Pacific was held in Bangkok, Thailand from 26 February to 2 March 1990. It was attended by high level participants from 17 countries in Asia and the Pacific. The report of this Regional Consultative Seminar as well as an edited version of the background papers presented at the seminar were published.

2. An abstract-bibliography entitled *Education for the prevention and control of AIDS* was published in 1990. Over 2,000 copies of this 120 page abstract-bibliography have been distributed to UNESCO National Commissions, National AIDS Committees, universities, schools and individual researchers. This publication was chosen, by the American Library Association, as one of the 'notable documents' published in that year.

The AIDSED Centre is part of the WHO global network of AIDS education and health promotion materials resource centres. It serves the entire UNESCO PROAP region. This includes the countries and areas in the WHO Western Pacific region and the South Asian region, as well as a few countries with the WHO European (e.g. Turkey and Russia) and Eastern Mediterranean regions (e.g. Islamic Republic of Iran and Pakistan). For purposes of information collection and dissemination, the AIDSED Centre uses two channels of communications on AIDS, namely National Commissions on AIDS, and National Commissions for UNESCO.

Since its inception the AIDSED Centre has undertaken activities in four areas:

1. Development of a Regional Resource Base for AIDS Education and Health Promotion Materials

   The AIDSED Centre has a fairly large collection of AIDS education books, monographs, articles, posters, stickers, videos and tapes. The computerized data base follows the UNESCO CDS/ISIS system. A CD-ROM AIDS Library Disc is available to access the relevant medical literature. The AIDSED Centre maintains a computerized readers' data base. It has reading facilities for outside users. In connection with field surveys, the AIDSED Centre has been called upon to give advice and guidance. Accession lists and catalogues of the materials available at the AIDSED Centre are periodically published and distributed.

2. Publications programme

   The regular AIDSED Centre publication is the AIDSED Newsletter. The sixth issue was published in January 1992. Over 2,000 copies are distributed throughout the region. Several resource kits dealing with subjects such as:

   - Sharing the Challenge: AIDS Education
   - AIDS, Population Dynamics and the Quality of Life
   - AIDS Education for Mass Media Personnel
   - AIDS, Women and Education

   have been compiled and distributed.

3. Information backstopping to national AIDS programmes

   The AIDSED Centre responds to requests from national AIDS programmes and from concerned institutions requiring AIDS education and health

promotion materials to support the planning, management, implementation and evaluation of AIDS education programmes. In some instances, materials tailor-made to specific national situations are developed to assist national AIDS programmes to conduct AIDS education training courses.

4. Guidance on the establishment of AIDS Education and Health Promotion Resource Centres

   Guidance has been provided on the technical, financial and administrative requirements for the establishment of AIDS education and health promotion resource centres at the national level or sub-national level. As plans to establish such centres are developed, further assistance will be provided, as needed.

Reviews of Recent Publications

TRAINING LITERACY PERSONNEL

APPEAL *Training Materials for Literacy Personnel* (ATLP). Bangkok, UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, 1989 and 1990. 12 volumes.

In order to eradicate illiteracy by the year 2000, UNESCO launched the Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL) early in 1987. This programme has identified problems in the activities related to the promotion of literacy in Asian and Pacific countries. Some of the problems are related to planning, infrastructure, management, and training. Since the lack of training materials is one of the crucial problems faced by many countries, APPEAL has taken this aspect as its first priority.

UNESCO PROAP convened a series of meetings and workshops to develop appropriate training materials by inviting literacy training experts, curriculum and materials developers from member countries. All these materials were developed during a series of Regional Workshops on Development of Training Materials held in Bangkok (Thailand), Kathmandu (Nepal) and Harbin City (China) between October 1987 and August 1988. In order to meet the needs of various levels of personnel working at the literacy programme, three categories of personnel are identified as users, namely:

Level A - Administrators and policy makers from the central office of ministries or units who work in literacy programmes. They are decision makers in their respective areas and should have a general picture of the nature, philosophy and strategies of literacy personnel training.

Level B - Provincial and district supervisors, trainers of trainers who supervise implementation of the programmes and train all the trainers, tutors or facilitators of the literacy programme.

Level C - Trainers, presenters or facilitators working at the grass-roots level. They are the functionaries dealing directly with the people needing basic literacy training

From these workshops a series of APPEAL Training Materials for Literacy Personnel consisting of 12 volumes has been developed. Although the volumes constitute a set of materials inter-related to each other,

individual books can be used separately. It is suggested that all the users of this series should carefully read Book 1 and Book 2 before reading any other volume. The title and scope, volume number and intended target of users (in terms of level of personnel) are given below:

Volume No.	Title and Scope	Level
1	Principles of Curriculum Design for Literacy Training	All
2	Principles of Resource Design for Literacy Training	All
3	Manual for Senior Administrators of Literacy Training Programmes	A
4	Manual for Supervisors - Resource Development and Training Procedures	B
5	Exemplar Training Manual - Extra Money for the Family	C
6	Exemplar Training Manual - Our Forests	C
7	Exemplar Training Manual - Village Co-operative	C
8	Exemplar Training Manual - Health Services	C
9	Specifications for Additional Exemplar Training	C and B
10	Post-Literacy Activities and Continuing Education	A and B
11	Evaluating a Literacy Training Programme	A and B
12	Implementing a Literacy Training Programme	All

These materials are exemplars and should be treated as resources for the development of national materials. The series contain only a set of the principles, procedures and strategies for the development of relevant materials suitable for member countries in launching literacy programmes to meet their training needs. The approach to the development of materials decided by the APPEAL Training Literacy Personnel (ATLP) was as follows:

a) *Develop a curriculum combining literacy skills and functional contents.*

b) *Identify and determine areas of functional needs common to member countries*

c) *Develop and produce exemplar lesson materials for these areas adopting systems approach.*

d) *Provide guidelines to utilize these materials for national literacy training programmes.*

Through such an approach the goal of the ATLP, is "to facilitate the development of a totally integrated and coherent literacy training system within a country. At the same time, the materials may help in establishing some useful and acceptable parameters for literacy programmes".

Volume I deals with the principles of curriculum design for literacy training. It contains guidelines and steps in the development of curriculum starting from the aims and objectives, contents, level of literacy skills and the organization of the literacy training curriculum.

In writing the aims and objectives for literacy training curriculum one should have a better understanding about the real needs of the learners who have never been to school or the adults who dropped out from school before they have acquired adequate literacy skills to enable them to learn additional skills on their own. The clientele of the literacy programme is different from formal school and varies from one place to the other. Curriculum developers should bear in mind particular target groups in the formulation of aims and objectives of the programme.

The functional content of the literacy training curriculum is elaborated at length. It starts with a discussion on the materials that not only develop literacy skills but also provide the learners with knowledge and skills useful for them, especially those related to the improvement of the quality of life. In this connection, based on the felt needs of the member countries in Asia and the Pacific, four major categories of functional knowledge were identified as the content of the literacy training curriculum: family life, economics and income, health and civic consciousness.

Three levels of literacy skills are also introduced as consensus views from member countries, namely: Level I. Basic, Level II. Middle and Level III. Self-learning. For basic level the target group is the adults who have never been to school or dropped out of school before acquiring literacy skills. The learners completing this level should show mastery of basic skills in reading, writing, numeracy and to some extent apply their skills to communicate clearly and use literacy skills in daily life. The middle and self-learning levels are a continuation of the previous level aimed at the mastery of skills where the learners should be able to learn by themselves.

The functional content and the attainment of literacy skills must be carefully sequenced in order to have effective learning results. But the exemplar LTC discussed also the needs to balance the literacy skills and

functional knowledge according to the needs of the learners. The decision on the emphasis is always linked with the needs of the learners and related to specific areas of the countries.

At the end of this volume, the organization of the LTC is deliberated. The objectives, functional content and major areas of literacy skills are brought together in an overall curriculum design. Criteria of organizing the curriculum are clearly discussed in detail including time considerations and division of the curriculum into the training manual. According to the Curriculum Grid, levels of literacy skills, functional content and time allocation for each levels, and sequence of Training Manuals are also treated in depth due to the fact that this topic is very basic to the rest of the volumes. The Curriculum Grid in matrix form is shown on page 34.

Volume 2 of the series is introduced as a resource for literacy training programmes.

Principles and steps of instructional design for the development of resource materials are elaborated using systems theory. The structure of each training manual and the important role of the Teachers' Guide are discussed at length in relation to the volumes (5-9) in the ATLP series. As to the role of the exemplar materials for different levels of personnel, the volume states clearly that a systems approach can be applied to all levels of the literacy training programme.

The last part of this volume is devoted to the evaluation of trial procedures and the outcomes obtained during trial stages of the ATLP series. The findings of trial showed positive and satisfactory results in countries where the materials were tried out and applied at the adult education classes.

Volume 3 is a manual prepared for policy makers and senior management personnel who are responsible for planning and managing literacy programmes, in general, and training system for literacy personnel, in particular, in the National Literacy and Non-formal Education Programmes. The aim is to develop a better understanding about the character of illiteracy problems and their consequences in the daily life of people. Specifically, it will acquaint Level A literacy personnel with APPEAL, ATLP and LTC (Literacy Training Curriculum).

The volume starts with illiteracy as a common challenge in most of the developing countries. Some statistics and figures are included to stress the magnitude of the problems. Literacy and development go hand in hand because the higher the literacy rate of a country the higher per-capita income of the people. When a high illiteracy rate exists other problems are commonly observed such as: shorter life expectancy, low school enrolment at all levels, low caloric and protein consumption, low GNP, high fertility and

mortality rates. In viewing all these problems and considering the potential impact of literacy programme for improvement of quality of life of the people, the developing countries should organize and launch effective national literacy programmes.

Three different approaches can be utilized to organize curriculum content, namely: objective-oriented, problem-oriented and investigative-oriented as proposed by Paulo Freire. It is concluded that a well-designed and functional curriculum incorporates aspects of all these three approaches.

Volume 4 This manual is designed using a participative approach where the readers are actively involved in the learning process. They are given the opportunity to analyse and reflect on what they learned and how they learned all the topics to better understand the nature of specific problems and areas of concern. The main purpose of this manual is to enable Level B Personnel to adapt the ATLP to suit their local needs. Level B may also use this material to organize and implement a training programme for themselves as well as for the training of Level C Personnel who are directly responsible for the teaching/learning process in the literacy classes.

Some topics in LTC concerning the development, implementation, monitoring and evaluation are treated at length in relation to the need for these materials in the Asian and Pacific countries.

This volume includes a description of the exemplar manuals (Volumes 5 to 8) of the ATLP with some explanation as to how literacy training manuals and literacy lessons are prepared, based on the APPEAL-LTC. Principles of instructional design for the development of exemplar materials are also included specifically by utilizing the systems approach (IPO - input, process, output).

In the implementation stage of the Literacy Training Programme, the functionaries should consider the cost, time, content, staff and setting or environment for the programme. The whole process of designing the training programme should be known to them, including the steps before the actual implementation of the programme. Needs assessment, setting of objectives, curriculum development, selection of methodologies, resources and training are among the aspects that must be familiar to the supervisors before launching and implementing the programme. Linkages and networking for literacy training programmes, in brief, are discussed. Under-scored are the resources of a network which can be tapped to maximize the use of existing resources for a national programme.

CURRICULUM GRID

Scope of Training Manuals						
Levels / Content Areas	Level I (Basic level)			Level II (Middle level)		Level III (Self-learning level)
	I.1	I.2	I.3	II.1	II.2	III
A. Family life	IA.1 1 Family members, their roles and responsibilities	IA.2 5 Supplementing family income	IA.3 9 Extra money for the family	IIA.1 13 Family needs and budgeting	IIA.2 17 Family customs and traditions	IIIA 21 Responsible parenthood
B. Economics and income	IB.1 2 Work and income	IB.2 6 Daily savings	IB.3 10 Improved agriculture	IIB.1 14 Home gardening	IIB.2 18 Village co-operatives	IIIB 22 Entre-preneurship
C. Health	IC.1 3 Food, water and nutrition	IC.2 7 Health family	IC.3 11 Common diseases	IIC.1 15 Health Problems	IIC.2 19 Community Health	IIIC 23 Health Services
D. Civic consciousness	ID.1 4 Rights and duties	ID.2 8 People's participation in development and cleanliness	ID.3 12 Our forests	IID.1 16 Our culture	IID.2 20 All people are equal	IIID 24 My country

The topics on monitoring, evaluation and follow up of literacy training programmes are focused on the *why, what, who* and *how* aspects. Monitoring and evaluation are viewed as complementary processes, each having a distinct emphasis but with the same goal of improving the training programme.

Guidelines to prepare evaluation instruments and recommendation of instruments to be used for evaluating various aspects of training processes and its impact are also presented in this volume.

Four exemplar manuals have been developed in the series:

Volume 5: **Extra Money for the Family**

Volume 6: **Our Forests**

Volume 7: **Village Co-operatives**

Volume 8: **Health Services**.

Each manual relates to one cell of the exemplar curriculum described in Volume 1 and Volume 2 in this series. Literacy skills, functional content and criteria for selecting the exemplar topics from the curriculum grid are briefly discussed to remind the reader about the approach and the nature of the system used for the development of the materials.

The function of the exemplar training manual is to show Level C Personnel how the systematic literacy training curriculum can be instituted and applied to various learning programmes at the national and local levels. In this sense the manuals will serve as a guideline for planning and implementing literacy training materials. Being exemplar training manuals, they are developed with the same features and format to illustrate the series of instructions for developing a manual in Volume 9.

Each manual has two parts, a guide for teachers (facilitators or tutors) and a workbook for learners. There is a one-to-one correspondence between the teaching steps described in the Teacher's Guide with the learning activities or responses stated in the Learner's Workbook. In each of the manuals specific timing is suggested for each teaching step. It should be noted that this training is not prescriptive, only illustrative. Therefore it may be altered by the instructors according to the circumstances. The teachers may have a better judgement as to the weighting of topics in the lesson according to their situation.

In order to keep the learner's interest alive during the learning process, this manual may be supported by using audio-visual materials (AVA) in some activities. Charts, posters, slides etc. are among the AVA suggested in this exemplar that can be prepared and produced by the

instructors. If more sophisticated media are available (film, video cassette) the teachers may also use them to enhance their teaching strategies and clarify some of the topics of interest.

Volume 9 is concerned with the specifications for additional exemplar training manuals. It is developed with the purpose of giving a broader range of examples for manual writers. Four full training manuals have been produced from the 24 cells of the literacy curriculum. This volume has illustrated only specifications for an additional four topics from the curriculum grid, with the intention of illustrating how each cell of the specification can be developed into a full activity. Manual writers of Member States may elaborate it later or write it differently according to their own situation.

Part one of the volume deals with using specifications from the curriculum grid decided in the ATLP. The specifications are arranged in such a way that the writers will have a general picture and frame of the context to be included in the manual for their respective countries.

Manual development is the activity of converting the set of specifications into the Teachers' Guide and Learners' Workbook. In this sense preparation of specifications is an essential first step in the process of development of good training manuals. That is the main purpose of the volume. Parts two and three of this manual discuss the specifications for an additional four literacy training manuals selected from the curriculum grid and from the specification to manual production. Lastly, using a series of cartoons at the end of this volume, some hints for manual writing and production are also provided so that concerned functionaries at the national level may consider it as a guide for their own writing purposes.

Volume 10 is concerned with post-literacy activities and continuing education. It provides guidelines for a gradual change-over of ATLP system in literacy programme to its long-term role of continuing education.

Continuing education, in its broader interpretation, is the provision for life-long education to achieve the goals of learning societies. Early in the 1970's UNESCO introduced the concept of the learning society to imply that educational processes are the responsibility of society as a whole and should not be viewed as the exclusive function of schools, non-formal education, literacy training programme, etc. Two prerequisites are mentioned before life-long learning occur:

a) *Individuals should be literate to allow them to undertake self-directed learning.*

b) *Resources must exist to provide programmes and facilities to the learners after literacy acquisition.*

The discussion in this volume is based on these two prerequisites for the provision of continuing education. Basic concepts and the relationship between literacy and continuing education are presented by stating that continuing education, by definition, is the provision of opportunities for life-long education outside of literacy programmes and beyond the level of primary education. It is for this reason that the existence of continuing education depends much on the appropriate educational provision through formal and non-formal education systems. Conclusions emerging from the discussion elaborated in this volume can be summarized as follows:

a) *Effective literacy programmes are a prerequisite for continuing education*;

b) *Continuing education should be developed as literacy levels improve*;

c) *Continuing education is the process leading to a learning society*;

d) *A learning society will evolve after the individuals become autonomous learners*;

e) *The richer and more diversified the educational environment, the more effective continuing education will be*.

As a consequence of the conclusions stated above, the ATLP should facilitate the rapid development of universal literacy to the neo-literate level. Furthermore, specially trained personnel will be required to promote continuing education and thus ATLP will need modifications and expansion to cater to this new need. The ATLP should gradually change its role from literacy programme to continuing education by integrating competencies needed for this new programme adding on the competencies that have been developed previously in the literacy training.

Volume 11 concerns evaluation both at the micro as well as at the macro levels. Evaluation of the literacy and training component at the micro level is geared towards specific elements such as the effectiveness of particular learning activities, design of a unit in Teachers' Guide or application of certain methodologies in conducting teaching/learning processes. At the macro level, the effectiveness of a programme is evaluated in more general terms in relation to its impact on the individual learner and on national development. This volume is particularly concerned with the evaluation at the macro level since evaluation at the micro level has been integrated into the other volumes of this ATLP series.

The question posed by any evaluation system in the area of literacy programme is whether or not literacy levels of the learners are improving as a result of a national literacy programme. More specifically, answers should

be given to questions such as: have the illiterate adults acquired the level of functional literacy to be able to improve their lives? Are the programmes conducted in an effective and efficient way?

A well designed national literacy programme will try to give answers to such questions before launching the programme on a national scale. Built-in evaluation schemes in terms of rates and levels of achievement should be an integral part of a national literacy programme. In this way standardized achievement tests and other conventional methods of evaluation become redundant.

In the ATLP series, an attempt has been made to carefully define progression from cell to cell in the curriculum grid and for each level of the training target. Since the approach utilized in this series is based on systems theory, evaluation procedures should take into consideration the three components of the system (IPO). A case study as to how this comprehensive evaluation is undertaken at every stage of IPO is described from a functional literacy programme in Northern Thailand. Lastly, this volume stresses again the inter-relationship of all evaluation conducted at every stage of implementation from the smallest activities to the broadest issues of the programme. A comprehensive evaluation such as this will be an integral part of a comprehensive literacy programme designed systematically at the national level.

Volume 12 deals with implementation which may vary from country to country because it will depend on the needs, resources and policies for education of the countries. Languages spoken by the people, demographic factors and availability of budget to launch this programme are among other limitations in adapting the ATLP approach. More importantly, the political will of the bureaucracy responsible for the literacy programme will also determine how the programme is implemented.

A prerequisite and determinant factor in the success of the implementation of this literacy personnel training in a particular country is the availability of relevant people at all levels of management. The training itself is not only for the illiterates but also for the functionaries of the programme from facilitators to trainers and supervisors and to the highest administrators at the central level. In this regard, ATLP provides a clear exemplar for the training of such functionaries so that it will be carried out more effectively and efficiently.

Evaluation is also a crucial aspect in the whole range of the system so that the programme may be assessed at every phase of the implementation. A mechanism proposed by ATLP to continually assess the improvement by built-in monitoring, supervision and evaluation in the system

may be adopted by member countries in order to make their programmes more relevant, efficient and effective.

In conclusion, ATLP in the 12 volumes of the series provides a framework and mechanism for bringing about changes in the literacy programme. Since the principles and approach adopted in this programme may be applied to other areas of education, it is suggested that other functionaries from different units in educational endeavour use it as an example for the improvement of curriculum, training of teachers or evaluation of certain programmes. For the next step, APPEAL and EFA (Education For All) will use this approach to develop exemplar materials for neo-literate people and continuing education at the regional level. It is by this co-operation, between the regional and national, that suitable materials for member countries will be available for adaptation. In this way, the improvement of quality of life of the people will be achieved more rapidly and the ideal goal of a learning society will be realized.

TEACHERS: AGENTS OF QUALITY EDUCATION

Tangyong Agus F. and Wahyudi. *Quality through support for teachers: a case study from Indonesia*. Jakarta, Ministry of Education and Culture, 1989. 141 p.

The book describes an educational project which was set up in Cianjur, West Java, Indonesia from June 1980 to 1984. Cianjur district had more than 17 sub-districts - 804 primary schools, 5,345 teachers, and 54 supervisors. The project is otherwise known as the Cianjur Project.

Improving the quality of education in Indonesia has always been one of the most important tasks which faces educators and teachers in Indonesia. In 1979, the issue was addressed in a high-level "Seminar on supervision, and the quality of primary education in Indonesia". Some of the concerns that surfaced from 1970 to 1980 about the quality of education, particularly at the primary level, were: (i) irrelevance; and (ii) wastage.

A study by the Office of Educational and Cultural Research and Development (Balitbang Dikbud) in 1979 noted the following principal limitations of classroom teaching in Indonesia: (i) many teachers spent most of the time conveying information; (ii) the blackboard was the most commonly used visual aid; (iii) role-play techniques and games were not widely used; and (iv) teachers gave little attention to varying capabilities of pupils.

Through the Cianjur Project, it was realized that if qualitative improvement of primary education is to take place, appropriate teacher behaviour competencies need to be developed. The teachers were regarded as the prime agent of quality education. In the above-cited 1979 seminar, seven desired behaviour attributes of teachers were identified, namely: (i) towards more logical and flexible planning of work; (ii) towards encouraging children to think critically; (iii) towards better recognition of individual differences between children and the range of ability within classes; (iv) towards encouraging creativity in children; (v) towards encouraging children to link learning with living in the community; (vi) towards differentiating the needs and interests of older and younger children; and (vii) towards encouragement of co-operation and mutual self-help among children.

It is in the above contexts that the Cianjur Project was set up.

The general objectives of the project were as follows:

1. *To construct working models in contrasting educational contexts in Indonesia in order to explore means of improving the quality of instruction through improving the quality of support for teachers at the local level; to monitor progress and modify the models during the course of the project as a result of periodic evaluation.*

2. *As a result of experience gained from the project, to produce a national plan for the modification and improvement of support systems for teachers which:*

   - *could substantially improve the quality of primary education;*
   - *was feasible to introduce within the financial, administrative and human resources likely to be available to the government of Indonesia; and*
   - *was flexible enough to be effective in contrasting educational contexts in Indonesia.*

The project was anchored on the following general principles:

1. *The need for participatory planning implying sensitivity to local needs and constraints involving a high degree of participation by local professionals in the organization of the project and in its evaluation.*

2. *The need to plan and execute the pilot project bearing in mind the possibility of its implementation throughout Indonesia. This implied devising a model which was neither too sophisticated nor too expensive to replicate.*

3. *The need to recognize linkages between the professional support offered to teachers and*

   a) *the selection, deployment and training of such teachers;*

   b) *the curriculum they were asked to teach; and*

   c) *the financial and administrative conditions in which they worked.*

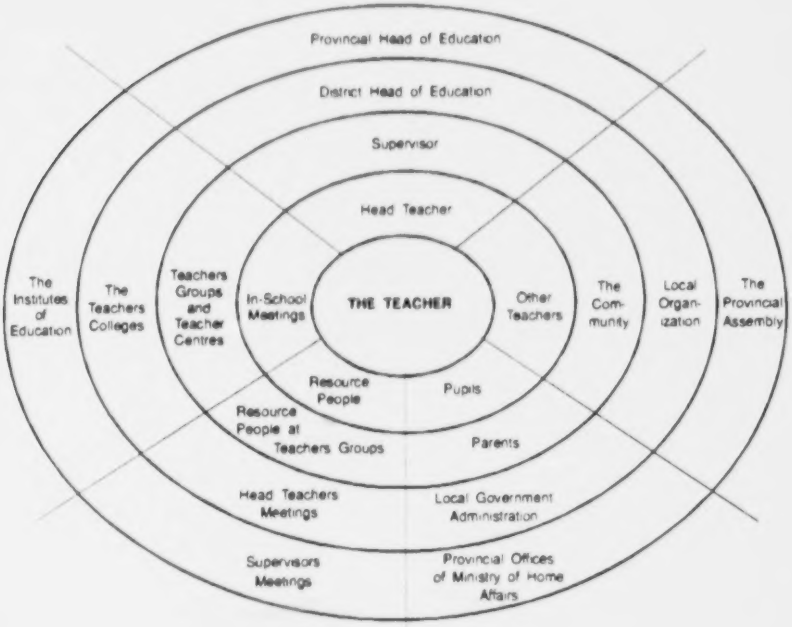
4. *The need to establish and maintain linkages with other related on-going projects in pre-service training and with the textbook project then in its initial stages.*

5. *The need for continuous evaluation and feedback for which general evaluative criteria were to be established at the outset of the project and:*

   a) *monitored regularly through descriptive evaluation, and*

   b) *examined periodically by the use of more formal evaluative instruments.*

The network of support to the teachers envisioned in the project is illustrated below:



One distinct strength of the project was the launching of new approaches to learning and teaching. The new learning style stress (i) the active rather than passive role of learners; (ii) activity-based learning; and (iii) extensive use of the local environment of the schools. Pupils were encouraged to express ideas, investigate problems and seek solutions.

Teaching competencies were identified and attempts made to develop those, namely the following:

1. *The ability to plan and manage the time available for learning more effectively.*
2. *The ability to recognize and understand objectives relating to processes of thinking as well as concepts.*
3. *The ability to recognize and provide for individual differences among learners, including children who are gifted as well as children who are weak.*
4. *The ability to organize and manage teaching and learning through a combination of class, group and individual activities appropriate to the needs of learners, the level of study and the nature of the subject matter. The ability to provide a stimulating and effective environment for learning through good class organization and display.*
5. *The ability to use the environment and the children's direct experience as a resource for learning.*
6. *The ability to use stimulating teaching and learning techniques (including questioning techniques) based on the use of process skills and leading towards a more active and problem-centred approach to teaching and learning in all subject areas.*
7. *The ability to receive and provide better feedback between the teacher and the learner and also to stimulate feedback between learners themselves.*
8. *The ability to evaluate more efficiently the results of learning through the careful setting, monitoring and assessment of pupil's output, not only through the work produced daily by the children in class and in the attitudinal changes observed from time to time.*

The competencies were developed through a new pattern of in-service training in which IKIP Bandung (a teacher training institute) played a major role.

The project was quite successful. A post-project implementation evaluation in 1986 noted that this is due to the following:

1. *The presence of the necessary leadership at all levels, particularly the local level.*
2. *A sense of belonging among teachers.*

3. *A sense of security among teachers in the project, because they believed that the task required of them was a feasible one and because they knew they would receive support from their superiors (head, supervisors and administrators) in achieving it.*

4. *The project met the real needs of the teachers, head teachers and supervisors.*

An evaluation of the project shows considerable effects in terms of changes in the following:

1. *Classroom methods and approaches, e.g. classrooms were happier, livelier and more attractive places; the seating of the learners had been changed; displays of work were common; and children frequently worked co-operatively.*

2. *Supervision was changed from one of inspection to support of teachers.*

3. *In-service training was more effective and enjoyable.*

In some schools, however, the teaching/learning activities did not change very much and these were attributed to the nature of the existing curriculum, the system for daily lesson preparation (Satuan Pelajaran), the concern to cover the whole of the curriculum, the teachers' previous concentration on conveying information, and the fact that the teachers had been conditioned by these factors for a long, long time

The project is an exemplar in many ways. Cianjur was meant to be a growth point for an innovation in qualitative improvement of primary education. To a certain extent it has served as a basis for the educational reform focused on qualitative improvement of education in Indonesia. It was also a project that became a part of the Asia and Pacific Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID)'s Joint Innovative Project on Raising the Achievement Levels of Primary School Children.

EFFECTS OF ECONOMIC RECESSION ON UNIVERSAL PRIMARY EDUCATION

Berstecher, Dieter and Carr-Hill, Roy A. *Primary education and economic recession in the developing world since 1980*: a special study for the World Conference on Education for All, Jomtien, Thailand, 5-9 March 1990. Paris, UNESCO, 1990. 114 p.

This is a monograph prepared for the World Conference on Education for All, to examine the impact of structural adjustment programmes upon the development of primary education in the poorest countries.

There were first of all the hopeful targets in the early 1960s: to achieve universal primary education by the year 1980. This was followed by more than two decades of rapid expansion of school capacities and enrolment. Despite the tremendous efforts and resources poured into education, it was discovered in the early 1980s that only a minority of countries could reach the goal of universal primary education (UPE).

While rapid population growth that had overtaken expansion in education was the main factor accounting for the failure to achieve UPE, an attempt is made in this monograph to look into the possible effects of the oil crisis of the mid-1970s and the subsequent prolonged period of economic recession on education.

Four basic economic indicators were analyzed: GDP per capita, public expenditure per capita, private consumption per capita, and debt service ratio. It was found that GDP per capita decreased during the period 1980-1985 in 51 of the 82 countries studied. The net effect of this, as quoted in the monograph, was that when GDP per capita drops, the cake gets smaller: either the share of educational resources for each primary school child decreases, or fewer of them will get to school, or both.

A similar decline in private consumption per capita has given rise to the more rampant practice of cutting down on 'non-essential' expenditure in families and households, whereby educational expenses suffered most. The prospect of 'recovering' the costs of education from the 'users' or their

families, by introducing fees, therefore seems limited. The same pattern was observed for public expenditure per capita.

To add to these difficulties, interest on loans to the developed countries has spiralled whilst new loans have been reduced. The result is that the net transfer of resources to the developing countries became negative in 1984. By 1988, this exceeded 50 billion US dollars per year. It was questioned whether the 'structural adjustment' policies promoted by IMF and the World Bank as a necessary 'cure' of the economic ills have entailed significant decline in the public expenditure available, especially for the social sectors and education.

Based on data available for 104 countries, it was found that primary school enrolment increased in 80 countries and decreased in 24 countries since 1980. In one out of every five developing countries, primary enrolment has stopped growing. This is unprecedented, although it is undoubtedly significant to note that the countries which have registered the largest decreases have been involved in a state of civil war during this period.

The number of new entrants has also fallen in about 25 per cent of the countries for which data were available. On the positive side, in a third of the least developed countries, new entrants are growing by more than 5 per cent per annum, but there are seven countries in Africa, eight in Latin America and five in Asia where the number of new entrants are decreasing. As this indicator is most sensitive to recent changes in circumstances, this provides grounds for concern about the future.

A larger number of countries - over 40 per cent of those reporting - have shown a negative growth trend in gross enrolment ratio at the primary level. In some cases, this may be due to an over-estimate of population growth and in others, to a gradual reduction of over- and under-aged pupils. But the overall picture is gloomy, giving signs that the faith in universal primary education is losing momentum.

Furthermore, it was noted that the retention or holding power of primary schools in the countries has not improved over the past years. As there have been no obvious shifts during the 1980s in the balance between drop-out and repetition, increased enrolment was accompanied by increased wastage in education. This has led to continued inefficiency in education. The concern about learning achievement has yet to be satisfactorily addressed.

Financial resource input into primary education has suffered most in Latin America and the Caribbean. The erosion of the resource base for education seems to be more pronounced in non-LDC countries. In these countries, the level or quality of the services offered have declined considerably.

The economic context of education is not encouraging. As poverty levels increase, child-labour becomes more indispensable for households to survive. So the 'opportunity costs' of children attending school also increase. To maintain demand, primary schooling must be made affordable - for example by alleviating sundry costs of parents on school uniforms, books, meals and transport, apart from providing free tuition and also scholarships.

There is a need to redefine the role of primary education so that it can be seen as a complete cycle aimed at imparting a coherent body of knowledge, skills, attitudes and a rounded consideration of appropriate cultural values. In the face of increasing disparities in many countries, the authors considered it important that primary school systems guarantee equal access and comparable conditions of teaching and learning for all.

Finally, the authors call for government efforts to reaffirm primary education as a priority development area and to allocate sufficient resources for the goal of UPE to be attained by the year 2000. Increased attention and support from the international community will also be required.

MULTIPLE SHIFT SCHOOLING: PROS AND CONS

Bray Mark. *Multiple shift schooling: design and operation for cost effectiveness*. London, Commonwealth Secretariat, 1989. 105 p.

Mark Bray's monograph is, no doubt, the current definitive work on this narrow, but much discussed subject. Commissioned by the Commonwealth Secretariat in response to decisions by the Ninth Conference of Commonwealth Ministers of Education (Cyprus, 1984), Mr. Bray has set out to de-emotionalize the controversy that arises when the matter of double or triple shift schools is raised.

By reading a scant 89 pages, the reader is thoroughly briefed on the multi-faceted world of multi-shift schools. The small booklet is the product of extensive research. The author has seen his subject as something perceived differently from various perspectives. Thus the reader is exposed to the same body of research information presented in six kaleidoscopic views - each one pitched at a slightly different audience.

The first three views are for policy makers; the economist, the educationist and the sociologist. The second three views are for those people who have to live with, or make work, a policy decision to apply multi-shift schooling. This includes school administrators, teachers, parents and - would you believe it - learners.

Bray is, by all counts, an accomplished educationist bent on communicating clearly, interestingly and succinctly. The reader benefits from this. Introductory paragraphs cue the reader to what he is about to be told, and once he has read the chapter there are invariably a few lines to summarize what should have been learnt. And in between, the reader is blessed with a tightly written text that only the meanest of editors could boil down any more.

The author, however, is not beyond stacking the deck of various pro and con arguments to compensate for the expected negative mind-set of most readers. Bray does his best to convince the reader that there are here-to-fore unthought-of advantages to multi-shift schooling. This being said, propositions are made such that an argument that favours multi-shifts in one chapter becomes an argument against later on. This gives the book a certain

quality of mystery: is multi-shift schooling mostly virtuous or mostly evil? This pulls the curious reader through to the end.

Not so spell-binding, however, is the eight page lecture on concepts of cost analysis. This gets across the point (finally) that multi-shift schooling has more consequences than simply cutting costs and irritating parents. We are introduced successively to cost-benefit analysis, cost effectiveness analysis and finally cost utility analysis and given simplistic theoretical examples on each, which, regrettably have little possibility of being used in real school situations. But after all, the ministers did require the Commonwealth Secretariat to study cost-effective uses of education resources. Perhaps the reader should be pleased to get off so lightly.

Happily the rest of the book is made of different stuff.

In the opening chapter we learn that the survey revealed as many as ten different models to multiple shifts - enough to surprise even the most experienced school administrator. There is the time-worn idea of double or triple shifts 'end on'. There are also schools with overlapping shifts which increase facilities utilization over the full day without running two separate 'schools' in the same premises. If there is a choice is it better for primary or secondary education to go on multi-shift? We are also introduced to such issues as multiple use of the teaching staff, and coping with the complexities of boarding schools, rural-urban differences, using buildings for both school and adult classes and renting public school buildings out to private schools for the second shift.

When the reader goes through the economics chapter the first jolt of good vs evil is administered. The reader is told that one virtue of multi-shift is that it frees time for children and thereby facilitates child labour. This will be shocking news in some quarters but the author lives in an Asian city where almost everybody has an economic activity so he bravely puts this issue out on the table. He also lets the reader know that double sessions do not cut costs in half - and he gives us five reasons why. Studies in different countries show a spread of savings: Zambia 46 per cent, Jamaica 32 and Malaysia only 25. He also unearths points about limits to capital savings that are often overlooked. If teachers are provided with lodging and teach only single shift, the savings are only in classrooms but not in teachers' salaries or in staff housing. Likewise if students are boarders no capital savings on dormitory costs can accrue through multiple-shifts.

On the educational ledger page, one can find conclusions of studies where comparisons are made between learning achievement in single-shift and double-shift schools. Comparisons of 'contact hours' (weekly classroom instruction time) are also made as well as observations on time available for extra-curricular activities. According to Bray the research, though giving

mixed results, tells us that poor achievement is not a direct sequence of multi-shift schooling.

The social issues chapter is a challenging one in that it links multiple shifts with social justice. If multiple-shifts is the only way for a poor country to make education universally available then this approach must be adopted. Bray trips over his own intellectual shoelaces on this one, however, when he hints that multi-shift teaching may lead to lowering of educational quality - a point he was loathe to accept in the preceding chapter on education. Interestingly, here he argues that one of the drawbacks to multi-shifts is that 'restless youth' may use their free-time to create social problems - an about-face from the idea in the economy issues chapter that it frees youth for productive work. This is one example how the book's kaleidoscopic views present the same data in different lights.

A full 30 pages are devoted to practical issues of how to draw up time-tables, how to design furniture that comfortably accommodates users of different ages and how to cope with the complex management problems growing out of multi-shift schemes. Some very sound advice is given on how to guard against deterioration of educational quality when teacher-student contact hours are reduced.

It is too bad that the author's brief was to examine the narrow issue of multi-shift schools rather than the broader issue of time as a resource for education. The discussions in this book (except for the Senegal example) spin around the desirable number of hours in a school week so that educational quality can be maintained. But if the object had been to assess the cost-efficient use of time, wouldn't it have been better to compare the teacher/pupil contact hours over a school year (usually around 600 to 700) against the total potential hours that some kind of education might take place (12 hrs. each day, six days a week, 50 weeks a year or 3,600 hours). This would have driven home the point that even triple shifts may only achieve a 50 per cent utilization of teaching space while single shift schools achieve well below 20 per cent. It might have also opened up the issue of the number of effective days worked each year by teachers.

Above all, Mr. Bray has written a useful book. There are practical tips to readers from all the disciplines associated with this issue. For once the positive arguments about multi-shift schooling are made in unemotional terms. At the same time the arguments of the nay-sayers have all been predicted in advance and are challenged by a well thought-out defense.

This a book that needs to be put in the hands of as many school administrators as possible. By drawing from real experiences it can give them confidence to make bold moves for increasing resource utilization.

REVIEWING EDUCATIONAL REFORMS IN ASIA

Bulletin of the Unesco Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, No. 29. *Educational reforms in Asia*. Bangkok, UNESCO PROAP, 1988. 141 p.

This publication comprises three sections: (1) Educational policies leading to reform in Asia and the Pacific: An overview; (2) Highlights of comprehensive educational reforms in selected countries; and (3) Special areas and issues in educational reforms such as distance education, teacher education, secondary education, technical and vocational education, mass education and higher education.

In recent years, a number of countries in the Asia-Pacific region have made in-depth reviews of their educational policies which have led to educational reforms. Such in-depth reviews were called for in the light of on-going socio-economic transformations and technological developments. Today some countries are still contemplating new reform initiatives while others have started moving through the different phases of implementation for the reforms which were initiated earlier. While there is no 'methodology of educational reforms' as such, countries have gone through various steps in the initiation of educational reforms. The experiences which the countries gained in undertaking these exercises invariably differed.

The Bulletin 29 of the Unesco Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific serves as a very effective vehicle in assimilating the country experiences in initiation of educational reforms in the region and in facilitating inter-country sharing of information and experiences in this regard. In particular, Section One of the Bulletin is very useful in synthesizing the country experiences and in depicting a regional scenario based on those country experiences.

While some countries may have introduced changes in educational policies, coupled with innovative measures for their implementation, the initiatives taken by a few countries have been so comprehensive in scope and wide-ranging in action that they led to significant reforms at the level of the entire education systems.

The in-depth analysis of experiences of the latter group of countries including Bangladesh, China, India, Japan and Republic of Korea are dealt with in Section Two of the Bulletin. Such in-depth analyses comprise, for example, problems that called for educational reforms; appraisal of existing educational conditions; strategies for implementation; organizational aspects; resource implications; monitoring and evaluation.

The in-depth analyses are significant in terms of insights into the social, economic, cultural, technological and philosophical factors which shape the goals and objectives of educational reforms. Initiation of reforms is only one side of the story; the other side which is equally, if not even more important, is to be found in the implementation strategies and implementation processes. Experience shows that the reforms have often been characterized by organizational gaps, implementation gaps, resource mobilization gaps, information and motivational gaps, as well as gaps in monitoring in evaluation. This Section of the Bulletin highlighted how initiators of reforms have to carefully address themselves to these issues in specific country contexts.

The special areas and issues dealt with in Section Three of the Bulletin are indeed the 'nuts and bolts', so to speak, of the educational reforms. While one may speak of educational reforms at the system level, it is the rationality, viability and functionality of specific components of the system which will ultimately determine the success or failure of particular reforms. The specific components may be the levels or types of education, contents and methods in education, the modes and modalities of delivery, the competencies of personnel who man and manage the 'educational machinery'.

These issues are dealt with in reference to specific country case examples and experiences. The development of distance education in Thailand is substantiated by innovative features of the multi-media Distance Education Project of the Department of Non-formal Education in Thailand. An account of the teacher education reforms is given based on a survey of teacher education in 13 member countries participating in the Asia and Pacific Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID). The reform experience in secondary education is illustrated with a case study on Pakistan. The conceptualization of a reform in mass education in Asia and the Pacific is elaborated within the framework of the Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL). The education of the disadvantaged in special difficult contexts is also given the special attention and treatment that it deserves especially in the light of prevailing objective conditions in some of the least developed countries in the region. A synopsis of on-going efforts in higher education reform was prepared with illustrative country experiences for India, Japan and China.

The educational planners, policy makers and administrators could benefit a lot from this publication, particularly in terms of inter-country comparison of reform experiences in education. Some of the conclusions reached through the country case studies have profound implications which may be of relevance to other countries as well. For example, the Thai experience illustrated that the open distance education system has the capacity to ensure equal educational opportunities and upgrade the educational standards of disadvantaged groups. Using integrated communication technologies for staff instruction, the distance education system can overcome geographical obstacles and employment conditions.

The report on secondary education in Pakistan highlighted problems in educational planning, administration, supervision, curriculum, textbooks, teacher education and examinations. It was concluded that Pakistan's experience roughly represents the secondary education in different developing countries of the world and, thus, is worthy of close observation and investigation.

In the field of higher education, the comparative study report on India, Japan and China concluded that three central themes seem to run through the higher education policies of these countries: the strengthening of institutional autonomy and co-operation among universities; the promotion of research activities; and the development of more effective linkages with the society. Equal emphasis was placed on the importance of quality in higher education.

Not only practitioners such as educational planners, policy makers and administrators, but also researchers, academicians, heads of institutions and faculty members can benefit from this Bulletin by keeping themselves informed of the recent trends and developments relating to educational policies and reforms in countries of the Asia-Pacific region.

ADULT EDUCATION IN THAILAND

German Adult Education Association, Bonn. *Adult education in Thailand*. Bonn. 1989. 256 p. (Special issue: Adult Education and Development No. 33, September 1989)

The German Adult Education Association devoted a major part of the 33rd issue of its semi-annual journal to the origin, concept, philosophy, development and future directions of adult and non-formal education in Thailand. This was a contribution towards the preparatory material for the Fourth World Assembly on Adult Education, held in Thailand from 8 to 18 January 1990.

The first 19 articles, all except one written by Thai administrators and field workers, form the main section of the journal. Thus it may be said that the information and viewpoints presented are based on first-hand experiences of those professionally committed to, and closely involved in adult and non-formal education work in Thailand.

The first article on 'Fifty years of adult education and non-formal education in Thailand traces the historical development of adult and non-formal education in Thailand, from "informal education" given in palaces, temples and homes to the upgrading of the Division of Adult Education to the Department of Non-formal Education. Its major current programmes are literacy campaigns and continuing education programmes in general education; information service through learning resources such as public libraries, village reading centres, radio and television, museums and audio-visual units; and skills training. Individual approach, group approach and community approach are used, and the focus is on man-centred development.

A warning is given, in the article 'Towards better balanced economic and social development,' that economic development, instead of bringing happiness to a nation, can bring undesirable outcomes such as greed, competitiveness, loneliness and unrest. The authors advocate 'balanced' development, in which the human component is essential. References are made to the Buddhist concept of the development of 'mindfulness,' free of greed and selfishness. Education, the authors state, has to perform a crucial role in promoting human capabilities to face the changing environment of the

future. In this context, the article proposes educational strategies, content and methods, for example, providing a basic understanding of the environment, and teaching fundamental skills, such as competence in the use of computers and English language.

In 'Non-formal education in Thailand: philosophy, concept and practice,' the concept of *Khit pen*, a Thai expression meaning 'knowing how to think' is explained. When faced with a problem, a person must determine which course of action to take. The Khit pen process postulates three types of necessary knowledge: knowledge about the self; about the social and physical environment; and technical skill or technical knowledge. This approach has been applied in the functional literacy programme in Thailand as a humanistic approach to learning, based on the Thai concept of happiness which depends on the harmonization of realities - between the self and the environment.

The article 'Impact of non-formal education on national development' begins with a historical review of the development of non-formal education. It then compares weaknesses and strengths of the in-school system and non-formal out-of-school system, in terms of stability systems and rules; educational standard; and specific needs and interests.

The author judges that out-of-school education has contributed to national development in the areas of literacy campaign, vocational training, political development, agricultural development, industrial development, social, moral, and cultural development.

In 'Education for productive life,' the author focuses his article on the project of the Vocational Training and Development Centre for the Thai people in the Thai-Cambodian Borders (VTDC) which started in 1982 to help solve the problems of health and lack of stable land for earning a living of border people. The project has enabled the people to use their skills in finding employment; but this has led to the problem of migration. The VTDC has developed new curricula and structures to meet the real needs of the target groups, for example, by inviting business owners in the rural areas to identify learning contents. The VTDC also organizes a community-based occupational development programme.

The article 'Business-oriented vocational training' focuses on an example of an effort made by the Northern Region Non-formal Education Centre in Thailand to train people to become sufficiently skilled technical entrepreneurs, who will master the trade as well as the craft in order to generate income by themselves. Apart from the technical skills, the trainees were provided information on how to search for seed money to start their own business, how to improve a business contact system, how to handle an

accounting and clearance system, etc. A detailed description of the system of metalwork training was also given.

The use of volunteer teachers is described in the article 'Volunteer-teacher: deviation from the norm'. The Department of Non-formal Education has initiated three types of volunteer schemes, one for solving the schedule rigidity of the formal school teachers being employed for non-formal classes and also for reaching learners in isolated areas (one for the Hill Areas Education; and one for areas along the Eastern border of Thailand). The projects have expanded, and in 1989 there were altogether 3,000 volunteer teachers employed. The volunteer teachers of the border areas project work in teams of five, covering horticulture, home economics, marketing, animal science and industrial technology. An evaluation team was sent to each province six months after employment. It is concluded that employing short-term personnel produced good results at the grassroots level, since they fit in well with the villagers' life style. The training of volunteer teachers can be improved by placing more emphasis on the human aspects, and their flexibility in terms of villagers' needs and circumstances.

What should follow a literacy campaign? One possible answer is given in the article on Thailand's 'Quality of life promotion project'. Its aims are to promote the living conditions of the people and to promote literacy skills of neo-literates, grade 4 school leavers, and the rural people interested in the project. The methodology of learning groups is used, with group leaders selected from the communities concerned. The project has produced leaflets and supplementary reading materials, cassette-tapes and manuals.

An article on 'Production of materials for out-of-school learners' stresses the importance of the media and materials for public relations work and for providing information to out-of-school education personnel. The Department of Non-formal Education has produced books, leaflets, posters, games, and audio-visual aids for the target groups in rural areas, and has received co-operation from other media agencies and organizations concerned.

The author of 'The library as a means for self-struggle' emphasizes the role of libraries as a component in the 'information pillar' aimed at assisting the people to be aware of their rights and means of bettering and protecting themselves. Alternative mechanisms should be considered, such as low-cost village learning sources to promote reading habits and a sense of inquiry.

'Donated Books Centre' provides an interesting account of how donated books are collected, sorted out, classified and transported to various destinations, such as public libraries, village learning centres, village reading centres, schools and provincial non-formal education centres.

The objectives of providing opportunities for people to further their education and knowledge are also promoted at the university level. 'Chulalongkorn University Continuing Education Center' undertakes lifelong education activities through organizing short courses of an integrated disciplinary nature, expanding the university's academic services to the community through distance education, and disseminating knowledge by radio programmes.

Puppet shows are also being tried out by the Department of Non-formal Education as a learning medium. The puppet show: 'How does it work with the Thai villagers'? describes the steps to put on a puppet show, starting from script writing, puppet decoration and music selection through preview, stage showing and evaluation. It has been found that people show positive reactions to this learning medium.

The author of a short article airs his grievances as a volunteer teacher of the Hill Areas Education Project (HAE), which he compares to a new road, but 'The new road is near collapse', he says. Once its special project status ends and the foreign financial assistance ceases, the administrators lose interest and move on to new projects, leaving behind volunteer teachers who have to carry on the work, but with less funds and less incentives. If the "new road" is to continue to be used, then existing problems have to be solved, viz., government officials of related agencies must be more broad-minded; material support must not be delayed; teachers' morale must be boosted; roles and duties of field officials must be defined; and better evaluation procedure must be applied.

'Karens and developers' expresses a personal viewpoint regarding the Karens (one of the six major hill tribes in Thailand, and the largest) and how their splendid and simple life and rules should be respected by lowland people. In fact the author appears to have a very low regard for the so-called 'developers' from the lowland who fail to understand the habits and customs of the Karens.

A community developer talks about 'Developing one's brother', but with a sense of frustration at the top-down bureaucratic system, and policies which are more 'words' than 'actions'. According to him, government agencies and foreign donors have to respond to political systems, and so the 'development goals' as perceived by the developers may not be the goals of community leaders. Hence, development programmes and projects do not benefit the rural people as they should and development decisions continue to be taken without the advice and consent of the farmers and villagers themselves. The author advocates dialogue between people as the 'seed of action', since talking to each other can encourage mutual understanding.

'The village headman's idea' remains imprinted in the mind of the author of this article, which recounts an anecdote during a field visit of non-formal education officials to a hilltribe village. They were quite stunned to hear the village headman's idea that 'special' food must be provided for 'officials' coming to the village. They felt even worse when they learnt that the village headman himself had nothing but chili paste for his meal that evening. The story shows that villagers still treat officials differently from their own folk; hence the gap between 'developers' and 'developees'.

The question of evaluating village reading centres in Thailand is the subject of the article 'The challenge of qualitative evaluation for policy formation in Thailand'. It discusses the relationship between village data and official data, and the desirability of evaluating the qualitative aspects as well as the solely quantitative factors of the project. One of the difficulties in evaluating a village reading centre, or a local primary school, for example, is that the visiting team usually sees a version of a village institution that is conditioned by the village's view of what the officials want to see. The result is that the evaluators are likely to be provided with incorrect data, which may not be adequate for policy planning. What is more appropriate is an informal inquiry through interviews with individual villagers, which provides an idea of the impact in addition to mere contact. The research findings, once fed back to the village, will acknowledge the villagers' direct participation in data provision, and serve as a further crossing of barriers between village data and official data, which is essential for policy formation.

Thailand's policy, strategies and implementation of literacy work are presented in the article 'Literacy campaigns and programmes in the context of literacy promotion'. Reference is made to a wide variety of literacy strategies, ranging from the compulsory mass campaign, basic education, work-oriented functional literacy, problem-oriented functional literacy, community-based literacy teaching to voluntary mass campaigns. The author states that the most effective strategy is the one which aims to capitalize on the prevailing support and resources, also taking into consideration the issues of political commitment and support, institutional capability, number and diversity of target groups and other crucial factors. Based on Thailand's experiences in literacy promotion, the author identifies guidelines for future planning.

The 19 articles summarized here are followed by two articles under the section 'Literacy Corner'. The first, 'The revolt of the dialects', focuses on the question of language in Africa. After briefly tracing the evolution of the Homo Sapiens up to the time of colonization and the current emphasis on the rediscovery of cultural identity, the author discusses the colonial linguistic policy which led to the marginalization of the African languages. The post-colonial linguistic policy still continued to opt for European languages due to

the decision of the elite administrators. As a consequence, there was a segregation between the minorities with a command of the official foreign languages and the majorities who speak only the national languages in Africa, leading to developmental problems. The article ends on an optimistic note that the awareness of the linguistic factor and its effects on development at the leadership level is emerging in Africa, in support of individuals' rights to communication.

The second article deals with *Literacy and elementary education in the Federal Republic of Germany*. This report concludes that directors of literacy courses must take part in a series of discussions in addition to teaching reading and writing to participants, so that the concept of counselling is operationalized. This will assist the participants to gradually apply the acquired skills in external contexts. In this respect, staff training is essential. The major difficulty regarding literacy education in the Federal Republic of Germany is finance and educational politics.

The last section of the journal is the 'North-South Forum,' consisting of three articles. The first, a keynote address presented at the Basic Education Conference held in Freetown, Republic of Sierra Leone in 1989, is on 'Basic education - education for all'. The author regards basic education as synonymous with the term 'Education for All'. At the global level, the author touches upon the institutions, organizations and individuals providing both formal and non-formal basic education, then moves on to the objectives, which, in his view, are: to make and keep the learners literate and realize their full potential; to inculcate in them healthy habits and attitudes; and to make them aware of their basic rights and fundamental freedom. The main questions to be raised in planning for basic education appear to the author to be : literacy in what language? for how long? what content? and by what method?

The title of another article is in the form of a question 'Should Africans imitate Whites in everything'? Starting by saying that most Africans would answer "Yes" mainly because to them the white culture is the best culture in the world, he then proceeds to speak of his personal experience. After studying in Europe for ten years, he realizes that the Europe as he imagined it to be is not at all the Europe in reality. Hence his disillusionment with western civilization. In order to have the true picture of the developed countries, one must have access to experiences of those who see Europe realistically. At the same time there must be institutions in Africa undertaking studies on the North and its intentions vis-a-vis Africa. The author concludes his article by advocating the examination of current policies of African countries, then revising them and orienting them on the basis of local data, needs and resources.

The last few pages of the journal provide information on the German Adult Education Association and international co-operation, including brief notes on programmes and projects of the Association and its partners in Africa, Asia and Lain America; and the text of the Declaration of the Conference on the Future of Adult Education in Southern Africa, which was held in Harare, Zimbabwe, in 1989.

This issue of the journal of the German Adult Education Association, as a whole, gives a comprehensive picture of adult education in Thailand, ranging from its history, concepts and principles, to implementation in the forms of field projects and personal experiences and viewpoints, as well as assessment. Although the articles vary a great deal in style of presentation and length, they share unity in the content: how concepts are translated into actual operations. Readers may detect some concerns on the part of field workers in the management and supervision of projects; but there is optimism that on the whole adult literacy work in Thailand has made its mark, and is receiving added attention and commitment. Articles relating to Africa are written by persons who feel very strongly on national cultural identity and endogenous development.

IMPROVING PRIMARY EDUCATION

Lockheed, Marlaine E. and Verspoor, Adriaan M. *Improving primary education in developing countries: a review of policy options*. Washington, D.C., World Bank, 1990. 264 p.

This book was prepared and published as a draft document by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development/World Bank for distribution at the World Conference on Education for All, which was held in Jomtien, Thailand in March 1990.

The principal authors are, Marlaine E. Lockheed, Senior Sociologist in the Education and Employment Division of the Population and Human Resources Department and Adriaan Verspoor, Chief, Education and Employment Division. A team of specialists participated in the preparation of this book through review of the World Bank's operational experience and scholarly literature, policy analysis and research, and extensive consultation with educational leaders in developing countries, World Bank staff, external experts and donor agencies.

The book comprises nine chapters and a large number of useful statistical annexes related to primary education in the developing countries.

Chapter I: The Context presents illustrative analysis of the crucial role of primary education in the overall development process and convincing arguments and evidence that a poor primary education system promotes an entirely poor educational base for human resource development. Therefore, it is extremely important that qualitative aspects of primary education are given full attention in planning and developing primary education programmes in the developing countries. The authors argue that the emphasis for improving access and effectiveness of primary education in the developing countries should focus on increasing the number of schools, ensuring completion of primary education by children having mastered core knowledge and skills of the curriculum and prevention of failure.

Chapter II: Trends and prospects in primary education development reviews the current trends and prospects for achieving effective universal primary education in developing countries. The authors

acknowledge that the developing countries have made tremendous efforts in expanding primary education in the last three decades and many countries have also achieved universal primary enrolment. But most developing countries are still a long way from achieving universal completion of primary education. Considering the present population growth rates in many countries, major efforts will be required to reduce illiteracy and universalize primary education in the coming 10-15 years. The authors reckon that against the current financial crisis faced by many developing countries, it would be most desirable to optimize the effectiveness of primary education delivery system through prudent management and ensuring that desired outputs are achieved. The authors view that developing countries can learn and benefit abundantly from each other through exchange and dissemination of experiences of effective primary education systems. Also suggested is that the primary education system, particularly in the low-income countries may require substantial policy reform and assistance in order to ensure that primary education becomes a possible goal for all children in the developing countries.

Chapter III: Improving learning achievement is devoted to the analysis of major issues and factors related to curriculum, learning materials, instructional time, teaching and children's teachability and how investments in these areas may be used to improve learning achievement of children in primary education. For each of the areas, the chapter describes interventions which have been demonstrated to be cost-effective and those that are costly, ineffective and impractical.

It is suggested that in most cases substantial overhaul of the curriculum is needed which would involve preparing coherent and appropriately paced and sequenced instructional programmes for all subjects taught in primary schools. The authors argue that the promising avenues for improving primary education in developing countries are the quality and availability of textbooks and teachers' guides, in-service teacher training, programmed materials, and the use of interactive radio. Time allotted for learning is also reported as critical. This, it is suggested, can be increased by setting and maintaining standards for instructional time and reducing class size which developing countries can realistically attain without much adverse impact on the cost-effective factor. It is suggested that at this point of time it would not be sound to invest in computers in most developing countries.

To improve teachability of children in developing countries, it is suggested that breakfast or snacks, incorporating iron, iodine, and vitamin A supplements and treatment for parasites will be helpful. These measures will help to ameliorate conditions such as malnutrition, hunger and disease. Primary school programmes can also be improved by pre-school programmes

and these should be targeted to the poorest children and those who live in remote rural areas.

Chapter IV: Improving the preparation and motivation of teachers illustrates that a most important central factor which determines student achievement is the quality of teaching. Hence, it is of utmost importance to ensure effective preparation of teachers and ensure that teachers' working conditions meet the basic requirements of a decent life in a given context. It should be noted that the teaching force in many developing countries fail to meet these requisite conditions. It will be necessary for governments to design policies and programmes which aim specifically at improving academic and pedagogical preparation of teachers and provide incentives and improve working conditions in order to increase teachers' motivation and professional commitment. The task of preparing teachers is particularly difficult in low-income countries since they not only have to improve the quality of the teaching force but also must expand it.

Various approaches suggested to cope with the problem of inadequate academic background of teachers are: shifting the general education component of teacher training to general secondary schools; shortening pre-service teacher training; and improving the recruitment process of teacher training institutes. It is also suggested that greater emphasis should be placed on practice teaching and development of pedagogical skills in teacher training programmes, both pre-service and in-service alike. The authors suggest, as working conditions of teachers have a major influence in the overall quality of education, it is imperative that appropriate steps are taken to create conditions which will help meet basic requirements of teachers in the developing countries.

Chapter V: Strengthening institutional capacity analyses three major problems causing the weakening of the managerial and institutional capacity of education systems. These are namely, ineffective organizational structure, undeveloped managerial capacity, and poor information systems.

Chapter VI: Improving equitable access examines the entire primary school population in the developing countries and reports that of the 114-115 million children who are not in primary schools in the developing countries, the vast majority are those from one or more of the traditionally disadvantaged groups in society: rural, female, poor, or minority. The major explanations for non-participation by children from these groups are: inadequate supply of school places, lack of parental demand and discriminatory treatment in school. Therefore, it is suggested that the governments will have to design policies and commit necessary resources to redress the existing inequities in order to achieve their stated goals of universal primary education and equitable access to education.

Chapter VII of the book, **Strengthening the resource base**, analyses available data and information to show that although many low-income countries will need external assistance, a reasonable programme of expansion and quality enhancement can be initiated by the developing countries with the means available to them. The developing countries will need to adopt integrated multi-pronged and flexible approach to educational finance, to promote balanced sharing of responsibilities among parents, local institutions, the private sector and the national government for the development of primary education.

Chapter VIII: **International aid to education** presents a review of the emphasis of international donor assistance to primary education during the last decade. It concludes that international donor assistance to primary education during the last decade had been minimal and not effectively directed at the most cost-effective educational inputs. The authors maintain that the donors' neglect of primary education was influenced by different perceptions of what constituted the most effective use of foreign aid. It is urged that the donor agencies in the 1990's will need to increase the level of aid for expansion and quality improvement of primary education in the light of the unique needs and conditions of the recipient countries.

In the final chapter: **Education reform** the authors examine major issues and problems faced in educational reform and change and their policy implications and priorities for educational development. The authors argue that prompting educational change is difficult under any circumstances, and it is especially challenging in uncertain and unstable environments that are often found in the developing countries. To facilitate change and reform, management strategies for school improvement in developing countries would need to be flexible to deal with considerable variation in programme application and numerous unexpected events. Large scale educational reforms take time and comprehensive successes are hard to achieve. The authors view that large scale reforms need to proceed incrementally in order to become successful. It is explained that there are four implementation dilemmas which need to be tackled in major educational reforms; these are: the complexity of reform, differences in local and national commitments to the reform, assumed uniformity of implementation and lack of resources. Reforms require changing the behaviour of many people in the education system; this involves students, parents, teachers administrators and specialists. The authors cite that successful large-scale educational reforms have taken 20 years in Ethiopia, 15 years in Thailand and 10 and more years in many developed countries. It should also be noted that recent research findings in developing countries have demonstrated that incremental implementation strategies make a positive impact in promoting educational change. The authors stress that for achieving effective primary schools in the

developing countries, it will be necessary to focus actions on strengthening local administrative structures to provide effective delivery of training and services to schools; establishing effective testing, monitoring and evaluation systems, and decentralizing policy and programme implementation participation by involving teachers, headmasters, community leaders and others whose efforts are central to the success of educational programmes at the very grassroots.

This report is a very substantial and useful document. The information and data used in the preparation of the various chapters of the book are drawn from the best of the materials available on the subject from a variety of sources, including the countries under discussion. A large body of officials and specialists from the developing countries and specialists from various international agencies and universities were consulted prior to its finalization. The entire report is presented very well and arguments and explanations adequately documented and substantiated.

The focus of the review is on cost-effective planning and management of effective primary education which is considered essential for ensuring universal primary education completion rate and enhanced learning achievement by primary school children in developing countries. The book deals with primary education only and does not cover literacy and continuing education, the other two components of Education for All.

Education planners, policy-makers, specialists and research workers in the developing countries and those engaged in assisting them in their bid for achieving universal primary education will undoubtedly find this book an excellent reference document.

EDUCATE OR PERISH

Ki-Zerbo, Joseph. *Educate or perish*. Abidjan, UNICEF Regional Office for West and Central Africa, and UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Africa, Dakar. 1990. 120 p.

This is a book with a very striking title. Professor Ki-Zerbo's eye-catching title *Educate or perish* is less a slogan than an urgent call to do something now or else suffer the consequences. The title also suggests Africa's present-day dilemma in education. The consensus is that there is no other choice but to educate, and to do it well and quickly. Indeed, as the author seems to suggest, to educate or perish is the option that must be made for the future, by Africans.

The purpose of this book is to stimulate critical thinking about the appropriate attitudes and new perspectives needed to drum up commitment to education for all.

Educate or perish drew its materials from contributions received by the UNESCO-UNICEF Ad Hoc Committee on the World Conference on Education for All. The document was compiled by Prof. Joseph Ki-Zerbo who was assisted by Mr. Mor Mbaye, Mr. Abdoulaye Diagne, and Mr. Boubakar Ly. The completed document represented Africa's contribution to the Education for All Conference in Jomtien, Thailand, in March 1990.

The main thesis of the book is that the African continent is facing a serious breakdown in society and that the causes stem from two major factors:

1. *the people are in a state of shock, because imported 'development' has effectively numbed their ability to reproduce the old and produce an innovative society; and*
2. *this present inability of societies to define themselves was largely encouraged by the absence of an endogenous education.*

An increasing number of Africans now think that the crisis in society and in the economy is basically a cultural crisis. The present educational system in the African continent by-and-large favours foreign consumption

without generating a culture that is both compatible with the original civilization and truly promising. The implicit assumption that economic factors determine cultural factors has been disproved by recent history which showed the resistance of cultures to exclusively material determinants.

As Africa moves towards the next millennium, Professor Ki-Zerbo sees Education for All as an attempt to encourage the development of initiative, curiosity, critical awareness, individual responsibility, respect for collective rules and a taste for manual work.

From the very beginning, the reader is forewarned that *Educate or perish* is neither a catalogue nor a comprehensive technical diagnosis of the African educational system. Professor Ki-Zerbo sets outs to define his goal as: to identify a number of major problems and challenges, to correlate them and place them in perspective, and then to map out a number of paths along which Africans may hope to retrieve control over a process that has in large measure escaped them so far - their social reproduction.

In addressing this goal he divides the book into three parts.

Part I presents a short historical and statistical background to the educational system from its early beginnings to the years after independence.

Part II provides a descriptive overview of African societies in crisis showing how the economic base and the socio-cultural context affect the educational system, as well as the various ways - positive, negative or toxic - in which the educational sub-system in turn affects the economic base and the socio-cultural context.

Part III addresses the following questions: In what respects might 'Education for All' be a solution to current problems? Is the slogan a copout, or is it a genuine rallying cry? What is its source? Whose watchword is it, and whose interests is it supposed to serve now that Africa's peasants, presumably the most directly involved, are reported to be taking their children out of the school? How is this new deal in African education to be implemented - under what conditions, using what content, along what major guidelines, on the basis of what criteria, and in the service of what values?

Paths and strategies

An interesting section of the book refers to the paths and strategies of education. After clarifying its premises, the book explains that 'Education for All' does not mean sending everyone to school; neither does it mean teaching peasants to read and write by rote. To provide education for all is to

render whole sections of the human population visible, not by dragging them into some abyss of ignorance, but simply by enabling them to stand upright. Prof. Ki-Zerbo notes, for Africa, the continent that suffers most acutely from various forms of the denial of knowledge, education for all means restoring the school system to Africa. For in its present form the school system does not really work for Africa, not for the majority of the young people caught up in it, not for the promotion of the economy, not for the advancement of society, nor for the flowering of African culture.

The renovation of the African educational system, according to the scenario painted in the book, involves three phases: Africanization, the quest for excellence, and popularization.

Africanization is best described, according to an anecdote by a retired worker with 12 children: "In the schools they never talk the way we really do, we Africans. They only teach them to talk like whites. Schoolchildren should be taught everything we need to develop our country; but make them not forget our customs." That in a nutshell is the strategy which contains the seed of not only reforming the educational system in Africa, but also of thoroughly transforming it. A key factor in the design of this renovated system, says Professor Ki-Zerbo, is the introduction of African language into the educational system. While recognizing the difficulties involved in implementing this, there is a consensus that Africa needs one or two major languages to serve, first of all, as inter-State and inter-African communications media, and as international media. European languages serve this purpose now. Additionally, there is also the need for Africans to experience their cultural lives in modern forms through their own languages.

The **Search for Excellence** is not an issue separate from Africanization; it complements it. For Africanization brings about a spectacular improvement in external efficiency, i.e. the effectiveness of adaptation to environmental demands. In addition, it has a clear impact on internal efficiency, as in those instances where the introduction of mother tongues accelerates the pace at which children learn the three Rs, while stimulating their creativity and intellectual alertness. The educational system may be made internally more cost-effective by cutting costs, but the results can also be achieved by boosting productive yields.

The third imperative of the new educational system of Education for All is popularization. Professor Ki-Zerbo says that the education of the young is too serious a matter to be left solely in the hands of teachers, groups, parties, families, etc. Education is a strategic field, and there is no way the State can control it on its own. Any attempt to do so will result in a situation in which these various other groups, after attending to their business in the fields of finance, commerce, nutrition, health, transportation, handicrafts, the

arts, communications, private law, etc. move with increasing aggressiveness into the educational arena, intent on the satisfaction of needs they consider vital.

Educate or perish is an interesting attempt to put a finger on the real carriers of the malaise in African education in particular, in African life in general and to shed light on their interconnections and interactions.

SERVICES STUDENTS WITH VISUAL IMPAIRMENT RECEIVE

O'Brien, Patricia. *Mainstreaming secondary school students with visual impairments*. Wellington, New Zealand Council for Educational Research, 1989. 116 p.

Introduction

In New Zealand, the educational needs of students with visual impairments* are serviced or supported by the Royal New Zealand Foundation for the Blind. This task is shared with the Department of Education. The Royal New Zealand Foundation for the Blind is responsible for providing the residential special school (Homai College, situated in Manurewa) for visually impaired students living throughout New Zealand and an advisory itinerant service for students who are enrolled in any educational facility in six areas in the country. The Education Department provides both itinerant and school-based services and Visual Resource Centres located in other areas not covered by the Royal New Zealand Foundation for the Blind.

This document presents the results of the project which looked only at the services provided by the Royal New Zealand Foundation for the Blind.

In describing services for students with visual impairment, various experts have described a continuum of placement options with decreasing degrees of assistance from the most to the least restrictive form of mainstream placement. In the Royal New Zealand Foundation for the Blind, a range of educational services are offered and illustrated below:

Level 1	Regular class placement No assistance
Level 2	Advisory Visiting Teacher Service.

* Visual impairment within educational settings has been defined in terms of the way students learn. Put simply, blind students are those who use braille and partially sighted, those who use print materials.

	Adviser visits students and staff and parents once a term or more.
Level 3	Itinerant Visiting Teacher Service. Itinerant instructs student twice weekly or fortnightly.
Level 4	Visual Resource Rooms. Visual resource teachers are located in regular students' schools and are used as a base for specialized support, resources and equipment.
Level 5	Residential Special School. Specialist staff work daily with students. This level provides the greatest support and assistance.

Objective of the project

The main objective of the project was to determine how secondary school students with visual impairments, their parents and teachers were gaining support services from the Royal New Zealand Foundation for the Blind and how future improvements and change to the present services could be made. Specifically, the project investigated the perceptions of secondary school students who are visually impaired, and those of their parents and teachers toward: (a) the availability and appropriateness of mainstream school placements and their specialized support services, back-up resources, materials and equipment; (b) the range and level of difficulty of subject hearings; (c) appropriateness of teaching strategies, difficulties encountered and level of support offered to subject teachers; (d) academic and emotional support available for both students and parents; (e) level of competence required by teachers to work successfully with students; (f) how schools meet the social development needs of students; and (g) how services could be improved.

This scope of the study includes the evaluation of the three types of services offered by the Royal New Zealand Foundation for the Blind. These include the Visual Resource Room, an itinerant service for students and an advisory service for students. At first, consideration was given to comparing the three services (visual resource room, itinerant and advisory) but owing to

the disperate types of visual impairment and number of students serviced by each, the differing roles of each service and their varying student-teacher ratios, a comparative study could not be implemented. Instead, the investigation consisted of three separate studies using either survey or case study formats.

Need for the study: issues in mainstreaming

A review of studies which looked into the various issues raised in mainstreaming or different forms of placement showed that there are a number of factors which either impede or contribute to a successful mainstreaming. The first of these deal with teachers' competency and concerns. The major concerns expressed by teachers included: how to better understand the responsibilities of their new role; lack of time to prepare curriculum and resource materials; how to develop new and alternative teaching strategies and specialized materials to supplement curriculum content; the need for in-service training and how to gain back-up resources.

With regard to the social aspect of mainstreaming, opposing viewpoints exist. Ellehamer Anderson and Holstein (1981) found that social development needs of the students were poorly met, whereas Orkan-Leckan (1978) reported that level of adjustment for integrated students was higher than for those from segregated educational settings. Lansink (1984) favoured the Visual Resource Room option over mainstreamed high school placement as promoting a more balanced friendship group of sighted and non-sighted friends with visual impairments.

Factors identified by Bishop (1986) as leading to successful mainstreaming for students with visual impairments were: a flexible teacher, peer acceptance, social skills, academic achievement, positive self-image, independence, family acceptance, inner motivation, available support services, equipment and personnel.

Study One: students assisted by itinerant and advisory service

The first study collected information concerning the perception of students, parents and teachers to the effectiveness of the first type of service: mainstreaming with advisory and itinerant support. In this model, the itinerant teachers visited the students at varying intervals from twice a week to twice a term while advisers travelled twice a year to visit students within the country areas.

Through interviews, using a questionnaire with close and open-ended questions, the study probed into five issues: placement and referral procedures; mainstreaming operations (placement options, school subjects and curriculum, and ratings of academic ability); help from specialist staff and resources; social life and teacher competency.

With regard to the first issue, fewer parents felt supported by the itinerant/advisory service and Royal New Zealand Foundation for the Blind with respect to choice of school, although the majority of students were happy with their placement. The study recommended that the social work staff of Royal New Zealand Foundation for the Blind and the itinerant/advisory staff of Homai College support and inform parents of the range of placement options. In the second issue of mainstreaming, while a greater number of parents, visually impaired students and their co-ordinating teachers would choose a local high school with advisory visiting teacher support to promote the 'social development of their child', a high school with a visual resource room was preferred to promote 'academic growth'. With regard to subjects, parents saw the reasons for students' difficulties in certain subjects like mathematics as reflecting the students' lack of ability and slowness arising from their disability. Students and teachers pointed to inappropriate instructional techniques in relaying information from the blackboard or overhead projector to the student. It was recommended that subject teachers be made a target group for in-service training in appropriate instructional techniques.

As to the support given by specialist staff and adequacy of facilities in the school, over half of the parents would like more assistance from the visiting teachers for their adolescent child whereas no student wanted to increase the number of visits from the advisory itinerant teacher as they wanted to avoid the fuss associated with the visits. A majority of students perceived the role of the adviser/itinerant teacher as checking on both social and academic problems. Over half of the coordinators would like more interaction between subject teachers and the visiting teachers. With regard to facilities it was discovered that few schools had made any adaptation to the physical environment of the school to accommodate the visual impairment of the student.

With regard to social life, the majority of the students did not experience difficulty in making friends except for a minority. As to the final issue of teacher competency, it was found that in-service training for teachers of students with visual impairment was thought necessary by most co-ordinating teachers, and almost as many parents More specifically, teachers should be made aware of what constitutes a visual impairment and how to adapt teaching techniques for them.

Study Two: visual resource room

The second type of service - mainstreaming through the resource room was examined through a case study approach. Overall, the level of support from the staff of the visual resource room was considered by students, parents and subject teaching staff to be effective. Apart from a

teaching/tutoring centre, the visual resource room serves as a clearing house for brailled and enlarged texts and reference materials for all subject areas across all forms. The range of assistance given is summed up by a student, "if you need urgent help with maths, they get you on the right track, get you books, take notes, read to you, organize tests and get books from Homai." In relation to social difficulties, most of the students identified the Visual Resource Teacher as the person who gave them the most help with social difficulties. Students saw the Visual Resource Room Service as providing them with both emotional and academic support. Academically, the students in the Visual Resource Room Service are considered to be operating at an average to above level across a range of subjects, while socially, the students report having both sighted and non-sighted friends within the school.

The staff of the school also speak highly of the work of the Visual Resource Room teachers and indicate a minimal level of stress associated with working with students who are visually impaired. However, one of the barriers to increasing effectiveness of the Visual Resource Room was the issue of staffing and limited teacher aide hours. It was felt that the role of the Visual Resource Room teacher could be enhanced by the appointment of a full-time teaching aide and reclassification of one of the teaching positions to a more senior level.

Study Three: national advisory service

In the provision of national advisory service, the staff made five visits throughout the year to the area, which enabled all 39 students to be seen on two occasions. This study looked into the role of the Advisory Service, identified needs of both the staff and clients of the service in improving its effectiveness and gain insights into how subject teachers work with and view having a student who is visually impaired in their classes. The sample of the interview consisted of seven students, five co-ordinating teachers, six of the seven students' mothers and 26 subject teachers.

The results of the study indicate a need for more face-to-face contact between advisory staff and school personnel, students and parents. This need became more apparent when it was discovered that only a minority of subject teachers interacted directly with the advisory staff on their twice yearly visits into the region. Several parents and coordinating teachers stressed the need for a locally based Visual Resource Centre.

A majority of subject teachers experienced some difficulties in teaching the students. The most frequent difficulty reported arose from the students' inability to see and read from the blackboard and overhead projector. A majority of subject teachers indicated that they modified their teaching strategies when working with students who are visually impaired. Two major concerns were expressed by the teachers. These were knowing

how to assist the student to meet his/her ability level and their lack of time to prepare work. In overviewing the findings of the survey, a major issue has emerged which relates to increasing the contact of students, parents and teachers with the advisory staff. Two suggestions were made: to increase the number of visits into the area by advisory teachers and the setting up of a regional visual resource centre. The setting up of a Regional Resource Centre has been formalized by the Parents of Visually Handicapped Association, in a proposal to Homai College. The development of a series of visual service centres decentralized from Homai College has become a popular solution to the need to increase the advisory and itinerant services of Homai College to students within regular schools in Auckland and country areas. This thinking has paralleled that of the Department of Education's Review of Special Education in which special education units have been proposed as a model to deliver special education support through the role of itinerant teachers to students with special needs in their local schools.

Conclusion

A challenge to the provision of any model of support service for students with disabilities is raised by students with visual impairments throughout the three studies. Although the majority of students wish to receive services, they stress they should not be delivered at the expense of incurring further stigmatization. An issue therefore that should be addressed by service providers is: what type of model promotes maximum service with limited characterization of the student as different? More specifically, and in relation to a model that provides itinerant teaching staff, the question becomes, does an itinerant teacher who visits a school community promote more or less stigma for students who are disabled than a resource teacher whose role is seen and accepted as a permanent feature of a school community? The book ends with this question, implying the need for further study.

FROM LITERACY TO EDUCATION FOR ALL

Openfile: from literacy to education for all: the critical decade (1990-99). *Prospectus*, vol. xix, No. 4, 1989, Paris, UNESCO, 1989.

It is being recognized more clearly that basic education for all is an essential prerequisite for an efficient and equitable development process. Without a minimum of education for everyone, human centred development cannot be sustained.

This realization is not of recent origin. The United Nations Charter acknowledged primary education to be a fundamental human right. UNESCO from its very inception furthered the cause by focusing its attention not only on universalization of primary education but also on adult literacy and continuing education. From the Elsinore Conference in 1949 to the Paris Conference in 1985, as also in regional conferences, these concerns have been reiterated. Its efforts all along have been to speedily remove the scourge of illiteracy, which divides the rich and the poor countries, retards the social and economic development of much of the world's population, stunts the potential human resource development of a large segment of society and, even within the disadvantaged groups, keeps a sizeable number, particularly women, from playing their rightful role in society. Despite substantial success, over 20 per cent of humankind still remains without access to education, almost all to be found in developing countries.

To build up the momentum to meet the basic learning needs of over 100 million children and nearly 850 million adults, a fresh and concerted international initiative has been mounted through the World Conference on Education for All (WCEFA) and the United Nations declaring 1990 as International Literacy Year, the main objective being to achieve education for all by the year 2000.

The UNESCO quarterly Review of Education (*Prospects*, 72) is precisely targeted to stimulate policy makers and generate international opinion to treat the problem of basic education and adult literacy with increased urgency and the attention that it deserves.

The Openfile: From Literacy to Education for All: the Critical Decade (1990-99) contains eight in-depth papers by scholars and

practitioners of eminence dealing with practically all important aspects of literacy. The papers deal with literacy concepts and its various stages of development and policy formulation and spells out implementation strategies citing various case studies and experiments. The papers also cover a wide range of related issues and concerns like women's education, social costs of illiteracy, literacy and empowerment, critical assessments of past campaigns, the role of NGO's in support of literacy and, finally, meeting the challenge of basic education for all.

The most important feature of these well documented papers is the experiential flavour in the writings and the knowledge of the authors about the ground realities in Asia, Latin America and Africa, where the problem is most acute.

In his exceptionally reflective paper, 'Adult Literacy: from concepts to implementation strategies' Prof H.S. Bhola traces various policy initiatives over the past half century and singles out UNESCO for its most progressive and effective role in promoting the cause of adult literacy and basic education. He also clearly spells out policy as an "instrument of power of the governing elite for directing and harnessing social power for preferred social outcomes. Thus, policy-making is involved, if and only if, there is an intent on the part of policy-makers to bring about a new and preferred distribution of economic, status, and power goods (and consequently, of educational goods) among social groups and classes". In other words, the moral core of policy-making is social justice.

Perhaps it can be deduced that educational policy seeks to distribute educational goods, and that adult education, functional literacy, basic education, continuing education, non-formal education and life-long learning are policy initiatives, since all these "concepts promote the distribution of educational goods to those who are disadvantaged by age, gender, income, caste and also by offering them a second chance for improving their life chances".

The normative assumptions of various policy initiatives are also analyzed by Bhola. These are based on five norms: the norm of comprehensiveness and continuity (life-long learning); the norm of essentiality (literacy is considered an essential prerequisite to all formal and non-formal education); the norm of structural pluralism; (freedom from formal structure to learn and to teach); the norm of utility (work-related education) and the norm of people's interest (to promote popular causes).

The central theme of his paper is the comprehensive view he takes of literacy which is built on the basis of various UNESCO documents and the outcomes of UNESCO sponsored international conferences. Finally, he comes to the conclusion that literacy is at the core of the basic learning

needs. Literacy is seen as having "intrinsic relevance" as well as a process generative of multiple external effects and outcomes. He is quite in tune with the concept of basic learning needs as seen by the organizers of the WCEFA,

> *"to consist of the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values upon which individuals can build their lives, even if they receive no further formal education. When these basic learning needs are met, individuals acquire the ability to read, to write, to work with numbers, and to engage in further learning, to respond to emerging opportunities, to adapt to change, and to participate in the cultural, social and economic life of their community, their nation, and the world".*

He concludes his paper with a hope that the "dialectic between access to education, and educational achievement, between equity and efficiency, between accountability and responsibility, and between utopian imagination and practical sense on the part of the policy-makers will be resolved, both in thought and action, in the people's interest". And by year 2000, the world community will have made one great leap towards fulfilling the dream of "Education for All".

The next two papers, *Literacy for What? The plurality of cultural approaches* by Heinz Peter Garhardt and *Literacy policy and practice: issues for debate* by Heribert Hinzen, deal with some fundamental issues regarding the value and purposes of literacy.

Gerhardt certainly underscores the need for literacy but does not approve of a straight-jacket approach. Nor does he support the Western view of literacy as necessarily applicable to all societies. He argues that it is important to recognize that each participant group has its expectations and motivations for learning the cultural techniques of writing and reading. Therefore, plurality of cultural approaches require diversified treatment of the issue. He stresses that the aspirations and interests of the illiterate should not be neglected in design, extension and evaluation of literacy programmes. This can be achieved by following a flexible, situational and need based approach to literacy.

He makes an important observation in emphasizing that empirically based literacy research should deal more thoroughly with the question of how goals in literacy work are established, what relevance they have for scholars, teachers and learners, and how they develop further during the interaction of these groups in the pedagogical setting of literacy work.

Similarly, Hinzen in his article raises issues of policy and practice and cites a number of case studies from developed and developing societies delineating different needs and different aspirations. Consequently, he

stresses the importance of relating literacy to the social and cultural processes of a given society. He concludes by saying, "Literacy - yes, but only when finally liberated from the many incorrect assumptions and unrealistic expectations hitherto associated with it, and, above all, only then when desired, regulated and controlled by those subject to it and in contexts where it is culturally and socially desirable".

Lalita Ramdas, in her article *Women and literacy: quest for justice*, attempts to establish rather forcefully a nexus between female literacy and social justice, which can be ensured by affirmative action in "empowering women". She seeks to examine critically the factors that either "facilitate or militate" against women's access to both literacy and justice.

There is no doubt that the proportion of women among the world's total illiterates is very large and is growing further. They are the real have-nots. Tracing the history of literacy efforts in its various phases over the last 40 years, she firmly adheres to Paulo Freire's radical pedagogical movement of "conscious-raising and liberation". She also underscores the importance of development which must precede or at least accompany, literacy.

The same tone is followed by Usuf Kassam in his article; *Who benefits from illiteracy? Literacy and empowerment*. Like Ramdas, he challenges the position of status quo. "To be literate is to become liberated from the constraints of dependency". While Kassam takes a wider and general view of literacy as a political weapon of empowerment, Ramdas relates it to more specific gender issues and calls for structural changes to liberate womenkind from subjugation in the Third World. She writes, "any crusade for literacy, and especially for women's literacy, will have to be considered as an educational as well as a political project. We have seen that the underlying causes for mass illiteracy lie in certain political and economic arrangements in society". Translated into concrete strategies, therefore, literacy programmes for women must include a drastic revision of content and materials so as to make them consciously 'emancipatory' as opposed to propagating a status quo approach.

This approach, with preferential treatment on the issue of female literacy, has to be an important instrument of policy implementation in this critical decade to achieve the real objectives of Education for All.

Audrey Thomas' article, *The social and economic costs of illiteracy*, deals more specifically with the problems of functional illiteracy in the industrialized world and tries to trace some of the social and economic costs of illiteracy in industrialized countries. It has been demonstrated that illiteracy is a pervasive and complex phenomenon and even industrialized societies will have to make special efforts to support new initiatives for adult illiterates.

Lessons from past literacy campaigns: a critical assessment by John C. Crains is an analytical piece dealing with various literacy efforts and attempts, particularly in and for the third world. It talks of mass literacy movements in China, Cuba, Viet Nam, Tanzania, Nicaragua, Ethiopia etc. which could provide, despite some shortcomings, a few lessons for the future. It is no doubt a fact, argues the author, that national problems in the developing world centre around the issues of poverty alleviation. When the majority of the population is illiterate, how are national goals and objectives to be obtained? In such circumstances how can equitable development be achieved? How are individuals and the overall society to hope for true liberation?

For most societies, the answer lies in education. Therefore, determined effort with international support through technical and financial resources is called for. Besides, the critical support has to be at the national level. If it is to be effective, political will must be reflected not only at the highest levels of government but throughout the nation. Illiteracy must be recognized, not as a problem to be left to the educator, but as an issue to be solved by the total commitment of society. "Illiteracy in short", says Crains, "is only partly an educational issue; all successful campaigns have recognized it as a social, cultural and political problem with major ramifications throughout the country". The two most indispensable elements for mass campaigns are, political will and mobilization.

In the article '*New perspectives in literacy: the role of non-governmental organizations*, Budd. L. Hall, Secretary-General of the International Council for Adult Education highlights the role of NGO's in the International Literacy Year and underpins their role in achieving the objectives of Education for All by 2000 A.D. He calls for new relationships of working together on a global basis to strengthen structures to make literacy available to everyone.

An important feature of the *Openfile* is the paper of Manzoor Ahmed and Gabriel Carron, *The Challenge of Basic Education for All*. It is a fitting finale to the theme. In fact the conceptual framework of the Jomtien Conference seems to have been drawn heavily from the ideas of Ahmed and Carron.

The concept of basic education is clearly defined as a foundation of learning for all citizens consisting of basic learning tools of reading, writing and numeracy as well as basic knowledge and skills for life as defined by specific circumstances. It is upon this foundation that further learning opportunities have to be built which can reach as wide a coverage of the population or as high a level as the circumstances and resources of a country will permit.

It is further elucidated by the authors that in institutional terms, "basic education includes primary education for children and literacy and continuing non-formal education for youth and adults". It is thus not a restrictive concept. Besides, as emphasized in the paper, the core of basic education activities has to be organically linked with other complementary educational activities such as pre-school education, basic vocational training and further formal education.

The imprint of this paper on EFA documents prepared by the Inter-Agency Commission is clearly visible and the utility of understanding the approach to basic education by the authors is also apparent. They believe that in operational terms, basic education "has to have a national or even regional definition", depending on what level of access to learning opportunities and learning achievements can be made universal. This feature has been repeatedly emphasized in the EFA documents.

One of the more significant observations by the authors is to underpin three premises of the concept of basic education. They are: first, the minimum or the base that is intended for all is not the total for all; the "minimum is the beginning of a self-sustaining process". Second, the level of the foundation of learning can and will be progressively raised in all societies. Third, all societies have to ensure that every citizen is equipped with basic tools of learning and the basic knowledge and life skills relevant for his/her own environment is that each can have a fair start in life. Basic education for all, according to them is a "battle-cry against the prevailing pattern of elitism and selectivity in education that offers much to a few at the expense of a common core of learning for all".

Perhaps in the final analysis, all papers in the *Openfile* demonstrate that the challenge of education for all can and should be effectively met, given the political will at the national level and international solidarity in terms of financial and technical mobilization for those countries who really need the assistance and support.

LEARNING STRATEGIES FOR POST-LITERACY AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

Ouane, Adama, *Handbook on Learning Strategies for Post-Literacy and Continuing Education*. Hamburg, UNESCO Institute for Education (UIE), 1989, XXII, 433 p.

This book is a result of intensive and in-depth study in the fields of Post Literacy (PL) and Continuing Education (CE) for neo-literate adults as well as for out-of-school children. It was carried out from 1980 by the UNESCO Institute for Education (UIE) through a series of workshops and seminars, preceded by a period of intensive analysis of data from almost 25 countries in Africa, Asia, the Arab States, Latin America and the Caribbean. A series of regional and international meetings were organized by UIE to discuss the findings of the studies and later disseminate the results to some 300 key personnel in about 100 countries working at the national level in designing and implementing PL and CE programmes.

The work of UIE was divided into two phases. The first phase was devoted to research and research-based training project on PL and CE which was focused on the development of Learning Strategies (LS). In the second phase, initiated in 1987, the emphasis was geared towards qualitative aspects on the content of general and vocational training, procedures and techniques of evaluation and training modalities for middle and grassroots level personnel within the broad framework of Life-long Education (LE). This Handbook does not include all the areas of research mentioned above because it is not a summary of all the work carried out by UIE during the decade. The content, as a result of these studies, comprises:

a) *Several guidelines that can be adapted to design national programmes.*

b) *Principles and criteria, on the basis of analysis and insights of findings in the studies, regarding the concepts, curriculum, content of training, methodologies and evaluation strategies.*

c) *Information that may lead to development of innovative ideas for drawing up national programmes in a holistic way where literacy, PL and CE are inter-related in achieving a learning society.*

The Handbook consists of three main parts with ten chapters. Part one is mainly devoted to the discussion of the framework of post-literacy and continuing education; part two to the learning strategies in action, while the last part draws conclusions from all deliberations of the previous parts.

The framework of post-literacy and continuing education

This part has two chapters: defining post-literacy and learning strategies for post-literacy and continuing education. The author points out that definitions of terms like literacy, PL, CE and some other terms in education vary from one country to another. For the purpose of uniformity, universally accepted definitions are needed so that the skills and competencies achieved by the learners can be measured and cross-national comparisons can be conducted and carried out efficiently. Thus the definitions of terms used in this handbook are introduced so that misconceptions by readers will be avoided.

The objectives of PL, CE and the relationship between these two programmes with literacy are discussed in general. It is then concluded with the stage of PL in CE to achieve a better quality of life. Literacy, as a massive programme in almost all developing countries, should be planned and correspond with PL and CE programmes. In other words, every programme in literacy, PL and CE, should not be planned on an ad hoc basis and solely with the intention to retain the learners from the initial literacy programme. The author concludes that the use of 12 learning strategies proposed in the previous section of the handbook will manage and enhance the learning experiences of the neo-literates (from literacy programmes) toward achieving the goals of PL and CE.

In the last chapter of Part One the author discusses the role of LS for PL and CE programmes in general. The stage of PL is very crucial for the neo-literate in the educational continuum leading to the achievement of a learning society. It is in this stage the learners may be led to where they can independently begin to enlarge their horizon to study the world. At this stage the management of programme should guide the neo-literates along the right path and provide continuous encouragement for the enhancement of their learning efforts.

In the actual process of creating the 12 LS introduced in this handbook, the use of environment, communication media, integration of objectives and the use of structures (as community centres, libraries etc.) are very important and should be borne in mind. In this way the LS are always related to the real needs of the learners and comply with their milieu in the development of competencies and skills that may lead, for example, to income generation activities. Lastly, at the end of Part One the author proposes 7 groupings of the 12 LS identified in the analysis and findings of

the studies for the purpose of simplifications and to avoid duplication in the strategies. The groups are:

1. LS using printed media: textbooks, reading materials
2. LS using radio, TV and audio-visual media
3. LS using distance education/learning and correspondence courses
4. LS using libraries, mobile exhibitions and museums
5. LS using traditional/folk media and games
6. LS using local studies and action groups based on needs and interests
7. LS using out-of-school programmes and award-bearing schemes.

Putting the learning strategies into action

The 12 LS, grouped into seven categories are the focus of discussion in Part Two. Each category is dealt with in separate chapters to introduce detailed examples of the ways in which the LS have been utilized in many countries to enhance the learning programmes of the neo-literate. The pattern adopted by the author in presenting each LS is to introduce the strategy as related to policy, content, organizational facilities and evaluation procedures. General characteristics, design of objectives and rationales for using the strategies are also discussed at length so that the users (middle level management and grassroot practitioners) can ascertain the strengths and the weaknesses of each strategy. Problems are posed and the possibilities of innovative approaches to their solutions are also brought up as examples. The functionaries may suggest other possibilities to cope with the problems as they see fit according to their experiences.

Implementation of the strategies are presented at length with some examples from different countries to make it more meaningful. Real field experiences are introduced in great detail so that the functionaries have a better understanding about the nature of each strategy and how other programmes in different settings can use them to maximize their effectiveness from the programmes. Examples included in each strategy may function as a springboard to engage practitioners in critical thinking about the varieties of approaches to implement the programmes. Eventually the chance to engage in such activities will lead the functionaries to develop new insights and open new ideas to put into practice.

The seven chapters in Part Two, deal with separate categories of LS. It begins by introducing LS using printed media in a traditional way.

Textbooks, and supplementary reading materials are the first group discussed in this chapter. Development, production, distribution and dissemination and evaluation of printed media are also deliberated at length because of the important role of this media in the LS. The rural press or community press is also included in this chapter as an LS. Some interesting topics elaborated here are the evolution and characteristics of this new media, organization of the paper, production, language and some aspects of management of the rural press. Since this is still new as an LS that is intended largely to impart fundamental knowledge and information to the people (particularly in the rural areas and deprived sections of the urban population), management and control of its content and format are crucial.

The use of radio, TV and audio-visual media as LS have been found to be very successful in most countries The author discusses some topics dealing with the objectives of the use of these media as LS, production, distribution, management and organization of broadcasting. Examples from many countries are also provided so that adaptation and formulation of new programmes can be based on the experiences of countries using these media.

At the end of the chapter, a topic of small media is introduced specifically for rural areas. In some countries cassettes and slides are used instead of relying on the radio broadcasts alone. The experiences of most Latin American countries (Mexico, Peru, Chile, Venezuela) have shown that these media offer a great potential for more creative approaches to PL and CE. The author, strongly recommends the incorporation of small media into the national programmes.

Using distance education and correspondence courses as learning strategies is introduced as an alternative system of education. It endeavours ...." to redistribute teaching in space and time, promotes assisted self-learning, and helps the individual to choose his path more freely in a more flexible framework". Distance education depends on certain media especially printed and audio forms. Some developing countries have also introduced the video-based media for their PL and CE programmes. Computer-based systems are not yet in existence in most of these countries. As far as possible these four media-based approaches should be utilized in the PL and CE programmes which use distance education as LS.

The author discusses four topics related to distance and correspondence courses, namely the features, objective and content, organization and the requirements with illustrations from different countries. But the author also cautions the practitioners to first give careful consideration to organizational and support aspects of the programmes. The author concludes that distance education is an extremely worthwhile programme and it can improve learning in PL and CE to achieve a better quality of life.

Rural libraries, mobile exhibitions and museums as LS may play two important roles in PL and CE programmes, namely:

a) they serve as centres for the distribution of reading materials

b) they serve as bookshops where PL and CE materials can be sold.

It is also pointed out clearly that the rural library may serve as a preventive measure against relapse into illiteracy by strengthening reading ability of the neo-literate and provide a learning resource and environment for the whole community. Case studies in different countries (India, Nigeria, Tanzania and Thailand) have shown the above conclusions. Some variations of the service, management and organization of these programmes existed in those countries according to the availability of different supporting resources, especially audio-visual materials, models etc. All these materials can foster opportunities for study and self-learning and enhance the PL and CE programmes.

Learning strategy using Traditional Media and Games is another topic elaborated in the handbook with special stress on the learning functions, and not merely entertainment function, for PL and CE. Advantages of these media to the programmes have been identified in many countries (India, Bolivia, Ecuador, Sierra Leone). Beside the attractiveness of the traditional media and games this strategy may help also to:

a) deliver inter-personal contact among the learners

b) deliver messages in an informal manner

c) help individuals to understand their environment better

d) encourage a two-way intensive interaction

Stages of preparation of traditional media and games are elaborated at length so that this strategy plays both the roles as an entertainment activity and at the same time an educational and learning aid in the PL and CE programmes.

Local study and 'Action Groups' as LS is also introduced in this Handbook although only a small number of countries have used it as LS in their PL and CE programmes. This strategy is recorded and reported by 6 countries: Bolivia, Brazil, India, Indonesia, Italy and Venezuela. It was originated in the 60's in Latin American countries where formation of groups in rural and poor areas were established for economic and political reasons. Through the formation of these groups, democratic participation was developed in the community and hence the impetus of keeping the group

active in various development programmes in the community. This group was then used by the educational sector as LS in the PL and CE programmes.

Case studies cited in this chapter from UIE researches pointed out especially to the promotion of better human relationships and individual self-development through the stimulation and organization of social groups which can analyze the socio-cultural reality of their community.

The last chapter of Part Two of the Handbook is devoted to the discussion on the out-of-school programmes, award-bearing schemes, vocational non-formal courses and similar activities as learning strategies. PL and CE are characterized by the opportunities they afford to the learner for continuing learning and for applying the knowledge and skills they acquire to the solution of daily life problems especially personal and socio-economic related problems. These programmes may be conducted in the form of development-oriented and academically-oriented strategies.

For the development-oriented strategy a strong emphasis on technical and vocational education for the income generating programme are elaborated. Many countries have successfully implemented this programme for the rural peasants and urban dwellers to train skilled personnel for development work. Academically-oriented programmes may be both general as well as vocational, formal and non-formal. Some of them may be in parallel with the formal school system while others establish a link between the two systems. Both development and academically-oriented programmes are discussed extensively in this chapter with examples from different countries. It includes the nature of the programme, phase, strategy of implementation, evaluation and constraints they encountered during the implementation stages. With variations and examples discussed extensively in this strategy, the practitioners and functionaries may consider adapting some of these programmes to enrich their experiences in using varieties of LS for PL and CE.

Conclusions

It is concluded in the final part of the Handbook that the use of combined LS, as far as possible, is often necessary to reach the programme's stated objectives whether it is in the category of development-oriented or academically-oriented approaches. Most of the development-oriented programmes are aimed at improving the standard of living of the people by introducing income generation or vocational programmes to the learners. It can also be a socio-cultural programme to increase the learners' awareness toward his or her contribution to improve the environment and society in general.

Academically-oriented programmes relate mostly to subject matter and academic disciplines within a general education. In view of these two

oriented programmes it is important for all functionaries to include both of the approaches in their LS, to realize and maximize their potentials and to use them through combining strategies wherever possible or appropriate.

In order to give an idea how these learning strategies can be used integratively in PL and CE programmes, the author provides two illustrations from different countries. The programmes are:

a) Action Programme to Popularize Colombian Culture (ACPO) in Colombia, and

b) Jana Shikshan Nilayams (Village Continuing Education Centres) in India

ACPO belongs to an NGO which has been providing services to the rural population, especially the farmers in Colombia. The services rendered by the organization are mostly in the field of education by using multi-media approaches. The programme was started in 1947 with the premise that all under-development has its psychological roots in the minds of the people. In order to develop the country one should start first of all, with the minds of the people by providing suitable educational programmes designed for the rural people and farmers. With this appropriate education the farmers could further their own development and start to play a role in the development of the whole society. Since most of the farmers live in isolated areas with very meagre communication facilities, the need for combined use of the mass media (printed and broadcasting) as a means of education becomes more important. This was the beginning of ACPO in providing PL and CE using integrated learning strategies.

The Jana Shikshan Nilayams (JSN) are Village Continuing Education Centres set up especially to provide facilities for PL and CE, vocational training courses, information etc. Each centre is established for a group of 4 to 5 villages (with about 5,000 people) either in the local school building or at the building of local self-government (Panchayat Ghar), or at any other community centre. Each centre provides library, reading facilities, discussion forum and cultural performances. In some areas the centres also have TV sets and radios. The centre is also utilized as forum for all development programmes in the community where group discussions and decisions are taken. The JSN was established with this intention, hence the provision for library, multi-media equipment and other sources of information. In other words, the function and activities behind the establishment of JSN throughout the country is to institutionalize PL and CE programmes to achieve a learning society.

At the end of the Handbook the author provides a glossary of terms, acronyms and abbreviations used extensively within the chapters.

STATUS OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH IN SOUTHEAST ASIA

Southeast Asia Research Review and Advisory Group. *Educational research environments in Southeast Asia*. Singapore, Chopmen Publishers, 1988. p. 234

This book is an outcome of the idea conceived by a group of five educationists, one each from Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore and Thailand who met informally in Bangkok in 1982 to explore the possibility of establishing a network of educational researchers in Southeast Asia. It was noted then that the group would undertake a study on research environment in the five countries as an initial collaborative venture. Later the group was formed as Southeast Asia Research Review Group (SEARRAG).

The study was carried out in the five countries by the members of SEARRAG as conceived earlier. The national studies attempted to review and assess the status of educational research and researchers, the scope and range of research that was being conducted and the utilization and impact of research in educational planning and policy formulation. The studies also proposed strategies for improving educational research and future research programmes in the respective countries.

The book presents country case studies and an overview of educational research environments in Southeast Asia. It is divided into six chapters: Chapters 2-6 are country case studies of Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore and Thailand and Chapter 1 is an overview. The authors are recognized individuals and teams of specialists in education and research from the participating countries. The overview is authored by specialists from Singapore and the International Development Research Centre.

The country case studies sought to answer questions such as these: What type of educational research is being conducted and by which institutions? What is the quality of research? What historical and social factors have influenced the conduct and use of research? What impact has research made on educational practice and decision making?

The five country case studies of Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore and Thailand encompass analysis and findings covering a wide spectrum of educational research, methodologies and their use. These case studies address the general themes of socio-political context, status impact and utilization of educational research. In their selection of materials and methods, they take into account the unique national concerns, research emphases and impacts in those contexts. The Indonesian case study involves an evaluation of over 200 research reports produced in the period between 1978-1982 and opinions collected regarding the utilization of research findings. Similarly, the Thailand case study is based on findings of research already conducted on the subject, assessment and study of factors which facilitate and restrict use of research findings in addition to studies of the impact of research in the reform of primary education. The Malaysian case study drew necessary data from a review of abstracts of papers from a one-day seminar which discussed the effectiveness of educational research on influencing policy decisions. Contributors also discussed how the constraints could be overcome to promote appropriate educational research in Malaysia. The Philippines case study reports the state of the art based on reviews of over 6,000 research abstracts. These research reviews are related to a major educational reform in education in the Philippines called the Programme for Decentralized Educational Development. The Singapore study is based on review of current research carried out by key educational institutions and detailed interviews conducted with selected educational researchers and institutions.

In reviewing the five case studies, the authors note that the preceding two decades for the five Southeast Asian countries included in the study had been a time of economic and political buoyancy. These countries had reached an average of 70 per cent adult literacy and near universal primary education. Tertiary education had also expanded rapidly with increased number of young graduates returning with advanced degrees from universities of the Western countries. It is reported that governments in these countries had also begun placing heavy emphasis on state planning and policy formulation with research identified to have a supportive role for educational development. In the words of the authors, "research in education . . . thus meant to buttress decisions already made or to suggest gradual system improvement - it is not intended to raise fundamental questions."

The authors report that educational research in the ASEAN countries reflected predominantly positivistic, quantitative data analysis approach, survey methods and computer assisted analysis. The themes and methodologies of educational research were also considerably influenced by technical assistance and support from a wide range of bilateral and multi-lateral donor agencies. It is noted that recent efforts reflect gradual shift of

emphasis to qualitative research and increased collaboration between institutions and educational researchers in these countries.

It is observed that the growth of institutions engaged in educational research and the increase in the number and quantity of research output in these countries have been quite considerable. However, incentives for research are considered still inadequate/weak and it is rare to find researchers with long-term commitment engaged in educational research as a field of pursuit. Researchers have found it more profitable to get involved in short-term research contracts and those which are commissioned by the State departments and ministries. The authors view that this lack of commitment is a principal factor which has contributed to promoting unsatisfactory research output and lack of scholarly exchange in the field, so essential for healthy advancement of research as an integral part of development and change.

The authors conclude that despite the weaknesses there are evidences in all the five countries that educational research and their findings have made considerable impact on educational policies and practices. Professional commitments, institutional and collegial co-operation and collaboration and building of a supportive professional community have also improved. The authors view that in the ASEAN countries a new openness, maturity and willingness to be constructive in educational research among those engaged in this field are now evident. However, the authors go on further to say that an identifiable Southeast Asian educational research community is lacking. In particular, the authors cite that the infrastructural features, periodic publication of research journals and collaborative linkages which contribute to an educational research community are missing.

The book provides very useful information and analysis of the current situation of educational research in the five ASEAN countries. Those interested in taking stock of and determining research capabilities and application of research in the five ASEAN countries will find this book a very useful reading reference. Readers will find the appraisal of research environment in the five ASEAN countries quite open and critical. The case studies prepared by educationists and educational researchers from the five countries are quite rich and indicate significant avenues for improving the overall quality of research, research climate and promotion of research community in the ASEAN sub-region. The editors and all country case study authors deserve commendation for this useful contribution.

As far as the assessment of the authors about educational research community is concerned, it is perhaps not equally fair to say that no Southeast Asian educational research community has come into being as yet. In our opinion it is not a question in itself of whether or not there is an identifiable educational research community; what is of greater importance is

what is happening in the countries and what forums are already available for sharing and exchange of research experiences. The large body of materials presented in the case studies and also the analysis made by the authors of the book indicate amply that the five ASEAN countries have made remarkable headway in educational research and its influence and impact in the development of education in these countries have been quite significant. Those involved in the current research endeavours represent well the emergence of an educational research community in the ASEAN sub-region which augurs well for a promising future. The emergence of SEARRAG itself is an important milestone and several ASEAN-related sub-regional as well as regional educational organizations and networks through their programmes actively promote educational research and provide forums for collaboration and exchange of research experiences and outcomes. There are enough reasons to believe that in the coming years more appropriate mechanisms and methods of inter-country and sub-regional co-operation and collaboration will evolve in the ASEAN region.

EFFECTS OF DECENTRALIZED EDUCATIONAL DECISION-MAKING ON THE CURRICULUM

Sturman, Andrew. *Decentralization and the curriculum: effects of the devolution of curriculum decision making in Australia*. Hawthorn, Vic., Australian Council for Educational Research, 1989. ix, 270 p. (ACER Research Monograph, No. 35)

This is the report of a research study undertaken to examine the effects on the curriculum of the Decentralization of educational decision-making in Australia.

Since the end of the 1960's the administration of education in Australia has been introducing policies for the Decentralization of educational decision-making as well as for the involvement of wider range of participation in the decision-making process. There has been very little research done to study the consequences of Decentralization. This research study was undertaken to study such effects, and also to investigate differences between systems and schools in the process of curricular decision-making. The focus was on the overall curriculum organization that schools adopt as well as more specific practices in the areas of science and social science. In general, this study sought to answer three questions:

1. *Are there substantial differences in curriculum decision-making processes and in support available for curriculum decision-making between the states and the schools investigated*?
2. *What are the perceptions of teachers and administrative personnel (school, region or centre based) about the present curriculum decision-making processes and about support available to schools*?
3. *Are there substantial variations in curriculum organization across states and schools or is there a consistency in curriculum practices that overrides issues related to the control of curriculum decision-making*?

The study sought to determine effects of four different types or levels of Decentralization: regionalisation, school-based curriculum decision-

making, teacher-based curriculum decision-making, and the participation of parents and the community in curriculum decision-making. Each of these levels were addressed through four possible influence or 'frames' on curriculum decision-making and on curriculum structures. These frames were: the system frame, that is, assessment authorities and central and regional offices; the school frame, that is, school administrators, faculty co-ordinators, and other school-based groups or personnel who can constrain the freedom of individual teachers; the community frame, that is, parents and other members of the community; and the individual frame, that is, the views on knowledge that individual teachers hold. In essence, this study was concerned with the effects of different types or levels of decentralization on curriculum decision-making and curriculum structures in schools.

The study was conducted in three states in Australia viz. Victoria, Queensland and South Australia. The three states were chosen because they were positioned at different stages along a continuum, having centralization at one extreme and decentralization at the other. It was hypothesized that Queensland would display more characteristics of centralized state than would Victoria and South Australia. Within each state three government high schools were selected from one region, selected for similar social and educational characteristics.

The methodology employed in the research was a mixture of 'quantitative' and 'qualitative' approaches. The analyses of the curriculum distinguished between aspects of the total curriculum and details within two faculty areas: science and social science. Whereas the investigation of a school's total curriculum was concerned with all year levels, the study of the two faculties centred on two year levels - Year 9, as an example of the compulsory years and Year 11, as an example of the post-compulsory years.

One of the notable findings of the study was that there was a similarity in responses of teachers in the three states. The greatest degree of congruence existed in broad emphases in the programme, teachers freedom over instructional practices, and the use of instructional practices. The greatest dissimilarity occurred with regard to specific emphases in the programme, the use of materials and, to a lesser extent, sources of authority for the curriculum.

Teachers in the most centralized system attached somewhat greater importance to sources of authority outside the school and within the school greater authority was attributed to those in positions of authority. However, responses of administrators provided a somewhat different perspective: in particular, parents and the community were seen to have a greater influence in those states where school councils existed. In Queensland it was reported that within schools there was rather more centralized decision-making than that reported in the other states.

With regard to the organizational and curricular structures, the analyses suggested that the South Australian schools were least traditional. There was greater use of a semester system, a more flexible approach to student groupings, greater time devoted to elective offerings and more elective subjects offered in total and more school-developed courses. Teachers placed greater emphasis on values, personal and social skills, and various cognitive skills. Conversely they placed least emphasis on factual knowledge about subjects. The most centralized state, Queensland, was far more likely to display a more traditional structure but, on the whole, Victoria, the most decentralized of the states, also displayed many characteristics of the more traditional pattern.

There was considerable similarity in the responses of teachers in the three systems to the use of various teaching practices. There was a tendency, however, for South Australian teachers to make more use of a wide range of materials, curriculum negotiation, an inquiry approach to learning and, at Year 9 particularly, group work. Conversely these teachers, compared with those from the other two states, (but especially Queensland), made less use of whole class instruction, testing and grading, exercises, texts, and informing students of the curriculum to be covered. Teachers in the two more decentralized systems, compared with their counterparts in the most centralized system, placed greater emphasis on a more 'open' style of teaching and less on a traditional style.

The three groups of teachers showed greater differences in their responses to the question concerning the use of various teaching materials. At Year 9 the greatest similarity existed between the responses of South Australian and Victorian teachers and the greatest dissimilarity between Queensland and South Australian teachers. In particular, Queensland teachers were more likely to make use of the textbook, single-theme materials, board syllabuses and the chalkboard.

The pattern of responsibility for the behavioural curriculum also varied from system to system. Pupil-welfare co-ordinators supplemented the work of the year-level co-ordinators in the most decentralized system, while in the most centralized and in the medium-rated system year co-ordinators and student counsellors operated. Administrators indicated that in Queensland the central and regional office had a greater involvement and the community less involvement in the behavioural curriculum than was the case in the other two states.

The study shows that there was very little evidence of parents and the community contributing to the organization of the school's curriculum, even in those states where such contribution was actively encouraged. In the curriculum area, school councils would appear to be reactive, not proactive

bodies and, even in their active role, discussion followed by legitimation of school-developed policies appeared to be the norm. The study indicated that the initiation of reforms designed to alter the nature of the curriculum could be met with some resistance.

The relationship between decentralization and curriculum renewal is not straightforward. Different types of decentralization might lead to different types of curriculum outcomes. Fundamentally, the research indicated that the similarities in approach from state to state, school to school, and teacher to teacher were as interesting as the differences. In general, decentralization to regional offices was perceived to be administrative decentralization and did not affect substantially decision-making in the curriculum area. Furthermore, it was the general view of administrators and teachers that ultimate control over the key areas of policy still remained in the hands of the central office. In other words, "regionalization not regionalism was in operation".

STIMULATING DEVELOPMENT OF A CHILD

Swaminathan, Mina. *The first three years; a source-book on early childcare and education*. Bangkok, UNESCO, 1989. 125 p.

The pedagogues, educational psychologists and pediatricians alike acknowledge that the most crucial and formative period of a child is 0-3 years. Research has documented that the most critical determinants of the learning capacity of a child entering school are nutrition, health care and early social environment. In other words the most important pre-condition for educational quality, equity and efficiency is set in the childhood years. Therefore, societies must aim to ensure that all children receive nutrition, health care, general physical and emotional support in order to participate actively in the learning process.

But factors like poverty, social discrimination, cultural and religious barriers and geographical remoteness act as major deterrents and deprive millions of children of the opportunity to blossom to their fullest potential.

These issues and many more relating to early childhood care have been brought out in this UNESCO publication authored by a distinguished expert in the field. Ms. Mina Swaminathan has underscored the importance of simple playway activities to stimulate the cognitive, the psycho-motor, the affective, the social and the aesthetic development of the child.

The book is primarily addressed to the trainers and supervisors of women and girls working in early childhood care and education (ECCE) centres in developing countries. But it also aims to reach such personnel directly as well as parents of young children.

Based on the reality that most poor mothers have to leave children for many hours in a day in order to provide for the needs of the household, the author has succeeded in advocating an alternative system of early childhood care and education.

Another important aspect of the book which is directly related to the long experience of the author in the field of ECCE is her firm conviction that it is not only desirable but entirely possible for developing countries to provide a system of day-care for young children which is not only "affordable,

offering relief to hard-pressed working mothers, but is at the same time, humane, culturally appropriate and supportive of child development".

The distinct feature of the book is that it underlines the basic philosophic concepts in child development and builds its entire approach and methodology on the strength of the institution of family, oral traditions of a given society and environment to make it yield all that is needed to foster child development. It offers a wide range of activities at every stage of the child's development. And these activities are based on daily observable experiences, folk wisdom and such simple practical skills which can be used to harness the child's growth without incurring much cost.

Whereas on one hand, she builds her strategy for the ECCE on the strength of the much valued family as an institution, or the market place or the farm environment or the temple (totally no cost resources) to enrich the child's perception, she also underpins the importance of rigid training for trainers and supervisors to manipulate the situations in the broadest and best sense. Through training she has attempted to create awareness and develop simple skills about observable activities and thereby build a large cadre of workers particularly for rural surroundings and through them motivate community leaders and parents to value the need for early childcare.

The book has three distinct sections. The first deals with concepts and principles and outlines a theoretical framework. The core of the book is section two which delineates a programme which includes materials and activities duly illustrated about every stage of the child's development (0-6 months, 6-12 months, 12-24 months and 24-36 months). We do know that these stages are like guideposts through which every normal child passes. We also know very well that there are different aspects of development - the physical, motor, sensory, cognitive, emotional and personal which are inter-related and take place simultaneously.

But what is innovative in her presentation is the stress on broad instructions and activities with simple illustrations for every stage of a child's development. Through her presentation the importance of nurturing is vividly reflected. The role of the child as an active agent, the importance of socialization, a playway method of feeling objects and learning, to perceive children's needs, to build a sense of security and confidence on one hand and to provide opportunities for exploration and self-expression on the other, are repeatedly stressed.

It is widely acknowledged that in the first two years of life the child learns through senses and motor activities. Based on the five senses are activities and instructions for the trainers. These exercises, experiences and observations are explained through systematic illustrations. The appendix of

the book gives a list of instructions on making toys and play objects from easily available materials.

In addition the trainer is exposed to simple psychological concepts of child development in relation to goals and methods to enable her to understand the sensory responses of a child to the activities, for instance, how a child aged 0-6 on being stimulated to seeing or hearing or touching, feels a sensation or makes a movement. For this purpose, a number of activities are suggested without equipment, using simple everyday objects available at home, like hangings, cups, spoon, plates, soft toys, balloon, patterns etc.

More activities are suggested at all stages of development of the child with a view to broaden and deepen sensory-motor experiences and encourage the child to communicate and learn to discriminate. These activities include pointing, naming, hiding, searching, shaking, making sounds, rhythmic games, hugging, pushing and picking up. In fact there is an exhaustive list of activities for healthy growth and development all through the book. The importance of the book lies mainly in its low cost approach to the material resources.

The chapter on language development is extremely informative. It speaks of a process of language learning, elements of language, stages of language development and measuring language development. It lists the concepts and the basic language performances developed by age three. For instance, from 0 to 9 months, it is non-verbal. From 9 to 18 months it is verbal as well. From 18 to 36 months the child learns to explore the environment and construct words. Finally, the approach of the author is to reinforce learning processes by suggesting oral exercises, repetition, story telling and preparing models for language learning.

In the last section the author briefly discusses some issues in the organization of a childcare centre. In doing so, she is careful to outline only general principles as it is difficult to be specific when addressing diverse cultural situations.

The point that requires reiteration is that the early intervention programmes always result in long-term advantage to children and societies whenever they are offered. This has been amply shown in evaluation studies of programmes among poor children in countries as diverse as Brazil, Haiti, Thailand and India.

These programmes experimented with a variety of alternative studies including (a) attending directly to the child through childcare centres; (b) education of parents and other care given to enrich their understanding and practice of care giving; and (c) fostering community development activities designed to enhance the environment of young children. They have indeed shown immense benefits.

India's Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS), one of the largest programmes of its kind in the world, illustrates the power of political commitment to achieve significant rates of coverage in integrated programmes of attention to children, ages 0-6, with important effects on health and education and at reasonable cost per child.

Although the programme often operates at a minimum level of quality, it has nevertheless had important effects on the under six population. For instance, a review of some 30 studies of the nutritional impact reveals unanimous results documenting a positive outcome. Another study found that primary school drop-out rates were significantly lower for ICDS versus non-ICDS.

These experiences and examples reinforce the value and importance of Ms. Swaminathan's work at a global level. In fact the importance of ECCE has been unanimously endorsed by the World Conference on Education for All.

Finally, it must be acknowledged that Ms. Swaminathan's work is a fine specimen of activity-based strategy and approach extremely valuable for formalized ECCE centres as also for deformalized community-based operations. The unique characteristic of the book is that it is designed not only to promote children's all-round development but also to facilitate the transition from the home situation to school in poorer surroundings. It also renews the faith of educators in providing parent education which is so far a weak link in developing societies. This work needs to be widely translated and disseminated.

IMPROVE QUALITY OF WORKFORCE

Yu Bo, Xu Hong Yan. *Adult higher education: a case study on the workers' colleges in the People's Republic of China*. Paris, UNESCO: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1988, viii, 110 p.

This book is a report of a co-operative research project jointly undertaken by the Central Institute for Educational Research (Beijing) and the International Institute for Educational Planning (UNESCO Paris) in 1983. The survey was conducted in ten workers' colleges located in the provinces of Shaanxi, Liaoning and Heilongjiang and in the municipality of Shanghai. The authors processed and analyzed the collected data and identified the major findings of the research in 1985.

The workers' colleges in China form an important component of the higher education system and of adult higher education. The main objectives of these institutes are to:

a) *train the workers to enable them to take up professional and managerial posts in industries or enterprises.*

b) *train cadres and skilled personnel, to update their knowledge and upgrade their professional capabilities.*

c) *develop capacities in scientific research, consultancy and technical assistance to industries and enterprises.*

At least three types of workers' colleges exist in China as far as the sponsoring body is concerned.

a) *workers' colleges organized by specialized ministries or industrial departments.*

b) *workers' colleges organized by departments of education or labour unions located at regional levels.*

c) *workers' colleges organized by factories, mines and other enterprises.*

Before the Cultural Revolution (1966-1976), workers' colleges of all types began to emerge. It was started in 1953 by introducing a few correspondence departments and evening colleges of higher education. Between 1958 to the eve of the Cultural Revolution in 1966 the number of these higher education institutions grew and the enrolment reached around 400,000 with a full-time teaching staff of 8,000. This development (in terms of quantity and quality) was in line with the introduction of 'rapid construction' in 1956 and 'walking on both legs' in 1958 as guiding principles in China. During these years a number of workers' spare-time colleges were set-up for the training of experienced workers. These institutions were run mostly by factories and enterprises.

During the Cultural Revolution higher education stagnated. On 21 July 1968, Chairman Mao instructed the whole nation to "train technical personnel from workers". This was the beginning of a first full-time "July 21 University" set up at Shanghai Machine Tool Plant. Following this example, a large number of "July 21 Universities" were established. Just before the end of the Cultural Revolution around 34,000 "July 21 Universities" were already operating with a student population of 1.5 million.

After the Cultural Revolution the nation entered the difficult phase of modernization. With gradual political, economic and social stabilization, many workers' colleges were reopened and new ones established. Reorganization of "July 21 Universities" was carried out, some of them closed and others converted into workers' colleges if they were qualified. The number of workers' colleges reached almost 900 with an enrolment of 260,000. In relation to the size of a workers' college more than 50 per cent of them had 90 students or less, consisting only of one or two classes. This was due to the shortage of qualified instructors or teachers or because of the short history of the institutes when the survey was undertaken. About 30 per cent have 200-300 students and only 2 per cent have over 1,000 students.

In terms of curriculum, a total of 286 specialities were offered in the field of engineering, sciences, medicine and liberal arts. About 40 per cent of them related to machinery, electronics and other engineering specialities and the enrolment for these fields were approximately 45 per cent of the total student enrolment.

After the reorganization and reopening of the workers' colleges, some administrative rules and regulations were tightened. Thus problems and issues emerged in relation to the goals, structure and curriculum, examinations and assessments, and job assignments of the graduates. The goals of the colleges were re-examined to make them conform to the goals of specialized colleges. In other words the workers' colleges were elevated to the same stratum of the higher educational system. The structure and

curriculum of the worker's college followed the specialized colleges in terms of number of teaching hours or periods students should attend in order to achieve degrees or diplomas as in the specialized colleges, with a stress on examinations and assessments.

To further strengthen the status of the workers' colleges, the Ministry of Education issued an instruction in connection with the certification, job opportunities and other entitlements of the graduates. After graduation from the workers' college, the workers were to return to the enterprises where they came from. Their qualification would be respected and their posts and salaries adjusted.

Analysis of workers' colleges

Ten workers' colleges located in three provinces and one municipality (Shanghai) were selected as samples in this study. The total number of workers in these areas was approximately 21 million during the time of the survey (1983) with 224 workers colleges. Most of them were workers at the coal mining, machinery, oil and timber industries.

Before the Cultural Revolution these areas had established a few workers' colleges to meet their manpower needs in industrial development. All higher education institutions were closed during the Cultural Revolution and transferred to the "July 21 University" starting in Shanghai on 21 July 1968.

Two workers' colleges from each province of Shaanxi, Liaoning and Heilongjiang and four from Shanghai municipality were selected in the survey from different industries or plants. Most of the colleges were established during 1972-1975 with the enrolment range from 100 to 2,000 student. In general, the number of specialities offered in one college was about 3-5, while some colleges offered 10 and one offered only one speciality.

Although specific training objectives of various operating units of the workers' colleges were different, the overall or general objectives are the same, that is, to train skilled personnel needed by the industries or plants to enhance and upgrade their productivity. The regional workers' colleges focus on the training of qualified personnel for local factories, mines and other medium and small enterprises.

Specialized development workers' colleges are another category of the higher education institution at the regional level which belong to the non-educational ministry (at the national level) or departments (at the provincial level). The objective of this college is to train technical personnel for the factories, mines and enterprises in a specific sector. The third category of the college, factory-run workers' colleges, set their objectives for the training of professional and technical personnel for their own needs. This is mostly

related to the expansion of enterprises, plants, etc. and is also geared toward the improvement of the proportion of workers from the unskilled to skilled and highly-skilled groups.

Requirements for enrolment in the workers' colleges have been laid down by the government. Workers' colleges can admit workers and staff members of the enterprises under 35 years of age with educational background of senior secondary school and two years of working experience in specific plant or enterprises.

Size of workers' colleges are varied according to the type of the workers and the orientation of the training. Curriculum and specialities offered by the workers' colleges also varied. The regional workers' colleges could offer a larger range of specialities compared to the factory-run workers' colleges because the focus of training is different. In view of the differences in specialities offered by the workers' colleges, curriculum designers should follow some basic principles to enhance the quality of their programme. These basic principles are: relevance to the needs of the production sector, flexibility and autonomy for selection of suitable specialities (in line with the procedures of democratic consultation), and emphasis on the applicability of the courses to the reality in the field or enterprise they should serve.

It is difficult to rely on full-time teaching staff to run the programme in workers' colleges because of the wide range of courses and specialities offered. To find and recruit qualified instructors on a full-time basis is financially impossible especially in factory-run workers' colleges. Hence it was found that most workers' colleges recruited some full-time teachers and a large number of part-time instructors and paid them according to the type of courses and the number of lectures they offer per week.

Teacher/student ratio, qualification of teachers, teacher experience, professional titles, salaries and workload varied from one college to the others. In the ten sample colleges this ratio ranged from 3.4 to 32.1. Average ratio between teachers and students was 1:8.8. About 95 per cent of the full-time teachers were graduates, either with degrees or diplomas. Usually the colleges with a longer history, larger teaching staff and larger region tend to recruit teachers of higher qualification. Half of the teachers in the ten workers' colleges had only five years or less experience in teaching and a large number of them were only recent graduates from universities and regular colleges.

Officially, there are four recognized professional titles for teachers in workers' colleges: professor, associate professor, lecturer and assistant lecturer. Teachers who were not granted a professional title were called instructor. About 70 per cent of the total teaching staff held professional

titles out of which 58 per cent with the title of lecturer or above. The regional colleges had the highest number of teachers with professional titles while the factory-run colleges had the lowest.

Generally, the salaries of full-time teachers were comparatively low. More than 90 per cent of the teachers received 100 Yuan or less and only 1 per cent received over 150 Yuan. Although the salaries have been significantly revised since 1983 it was still low compared with other professions. It is also worth noting that the salary scale was closely related to educational qualification and experience of the teacher but not to his/her professional title.

The full-time teachers taught about four to six lecture hours a week with an additional ten hours in after-class activities. Most of these after-class activities were devoted to guidance of students, preparation of experiments, correcting papers and other administrative work in the office.

School buildings and facilities to run workers' colleges have been improved in recent years. Again, a great variation was found among the colleges. Floor space per student and number of students per general classroom were used as indicators to show the disparity that exists among these colleges.

The workers' colleges were financed in different ways by different sources. Regional workers' colleges were financed by the government and tuition received from students (paid by the plants and enterprises). The government usually contributed about 80 per cent to the income of the colleges and the remaining 20 per cent was made up from the students' tuition fee.

The expenditure of the factory-run colleges was fully paid by the enterprises and was usually taken from the 'staff training' expenditures. The total amount of the expenditures was around 1.5 per cent of the total amount of all salaries of the workers.

The specialized non-educational departments usually raised their funds from plants and enterprises under the respective departments to run their workers' colleges.

The workers' colleges in China operate under the leadership and administration of the national ministries, provincial departments and sponsoring units or labour unions. The Ministry of Education is the central administration for the workers' colleges. This ministry is responsible for policy development, programme assessment, administration of general curriculum and teacher training. At the provincial level, local departments of education, trade unions and workers' education management committees gave guidance to the colleges to carry out their programmes.

Conclusion

There is no doubt that these colleges played an important role in the overall educational programmes in the country. The merits of the colleges may be summed up as follows:

1. Workers' colleges are means for improving capabilities of existing manpower who worked in plants, enterprises or industries. Workers' colleges may be considered as a form of in-service training where its programmes are geared toward the improvement of the quality of the workforce.

2. Workers' colleges are sensitive to real manpower needs. The curriculum and course programmes are designed to meet the needs of the enterprises or factories/industries especially in the case of factory-run workers' colleges. The modes of studies may also be altered (full-time, part-time and spare-time) according to the needs and manpower planning of the enterprises. The enterprises have the freedom to fit the workers' studies with the manpower structures and production schedules.

3. Workers' colleges provide a means of further education. In recent years, graduates of senior high schools and vocational and technical educations have entered the enterprises and industries. This trend has increased the average level of education of the workers. Since they are still young, most of them want to continue their education. Workers' colleges have helped this younger generation to satisfy the needs for continuing their education. This will provide a second route for young people to acquire a tertiary level of education and increase their qualification in the industries.

4. Mobilization of local resources. A large percentage of the funding for workers' colleges comes from the industries and enterprises which are the consumers of these institutions' output. Usually the funds come from the budget item 'staff education' which earmarks resources for staff retraining. In the same way commission-training in regular colleges are also financed largely by the enterprises. It can be concluded that most of the industrial enterprises have become a major contributor to higher education in China.

5. Efficient use of resources. The workers' colleges have a much higher internal efficiency compared with regular universities. Buildings and workshops are used for training students as well as housing machines and other equipment for practical work.

These facilities have significantly reduced the funds needed for classroom and equipment for instruction. Furthermore, a large number of part-time and spare-time students incur minimal opportunity cost in terms of forgone production time. Hence, the cost of training a student in a workers' college is lower compared with that for a regular higher education institution. The workers' colleges also need smaller investment in buildings and equipment but offer greater benefits to the enterprises and students.

Further development

The educational scene in China changed very rapidly from the time of the survey in 1983 to finalization of the report in 1986. In 1985, there was a drastic reform in higher education. Expansion of adult education, flexibility in workers' education, independent study examination and 'open education' type of institution became popular in the Chinese educational system. Despite these developments the characteristics of workers' colleges remain so that the findings and results of the study are still useful for planners in higher education programmes.

At this point, it is also worth noting that the unified curriculum for workers' colleges implemented in the entire country has been changed and moved from conformity to a more flexible programme to cater for specific needs of specific areas and specific target audiences. The flexibility is now matched with the changing and widely varying needs of the enterprises to which the student will be deployed after graduation from the workers' colleges.

Teaching methods and learning modes are other aspects that need to be viewed differently from the regular higher education institutes. Perhaps a kind of 'pedagogy for adults' should be adapted in the actual learning teaching processes. In this way special needs and strengths of adult students as well as their profession and professional characteristics will be taken into account in deciding the approaches and teaching methodologies.

It is still debatable whether narrow vocational training as reflected in workers' colleges is appropriate to tertiary level of education. This is not only from the point of view of the philosophical aims of higher education but also from the pragmatic view as to whether such narrow training will meet the needs of students and industries in a period of rapid technological change. The controversy of specialization (narrow vocational training) in workers' colleges versus general training at regular universities needs to be settled at different levels of higher education management.

Although studies in workers' colleges are closely related to the reality at the enterprises or industries, in practice teaching makes little use of the available resources and the work-place situations. Recently, on-the-job training has become one of the characteristics of the workers' colleges. A solid foundation for the relationship between the concept of on-the-job training and workers' colleges should be established so that controversies such as 'second role institution', 'vocational training', 'narrow specialization' etc. attached to workers' colleges will slowly vanish.

The Library and Documentation Service of the UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, Bangkok continues to build up its documentation resources, which include a major collection of publications on education in the Asia and Pacific region. The publications reviewed and annotated and printed in this issue are some interesting documents recently received. The UNESCO Principal Regional Office will appreciate being notified of documents from Asia and the Pacific related to education in the region, published within the past few years, which have not been included in its bibliographies. Better still, readers may wish to send the actual documents to the Library and Documentation Service, UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, P.O. Box 967, Prakanong, Bangkok 10110, Thailand

Annotations on Asia/Pacific Documents

ANNOTATIONS ON ASIA/PACIFIC DOCUMENTS

ASIA/PACIFIC

IFFTU-UNESCO Seminar on the Status of Teachers, 20-23 February 1989. *Report of the seminar*. Bangkok, UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, 1989. 219 p.

This seminar was organized by the International Federation of Free Teachers Unions (IFFTU) with the financial assistance from UNESCO and in co-operation with the International Labour Organization (ILO).

The main objective of the seminar was to publicize widely the 1966 ILO-UNESCO Recommendation concerning the Status of Teachers and to find ways and means to have its provisions implemented fully. The IFFTU Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific sent out a questionnaire to members and teachers organizations in the region to help prepare country reports on the status of teachers and steps being taken by countries to improve the status of teachers. There were 55 participants from teachers organizations in Asia/Pacific region such as Bangladesh, Fiji, Hong Kong, India, Indonesia, Philippines, Papua New Guinea, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Singapore, Israel, Thailand, including officers from IFFTU and ILO Regional Office.

The country reports and the answers to the questionnaire are published in this report. There are seven parts, namely, programme, opening address, background and resource papers, country reports, conclusions and recommendations, the questionnaire and replies on the status of teachers and list of participants.

UNESCO. Division of Equality of Educational Opportunity and Special Programmes. *Women's education looks forward; programmes and strategies, 1989*. Paris, 1989. 125 p. illus.

This report was compiled in order to implement UNESCO's sub-programmes to promote the exchange of information and experiences of national efforts in the field of girls' and women's education.

The national responses were submitted by the National Commissions for UNESCO and international non-governmental organizations.

The national articles deal with adult education, literacy and civic education; education and training for rural women; other innovative programmes; technical and vocational education for women; science and technology; women and higher education; support services: credits, technology, co-operatives, marketing, mass media, strategies, policies and women's machineries. References are provided in the appendix.

UNESCO. Office of Statistics. *Basic education and literacy; world statistical indicators*. Paris, 1990. 61 p.

The aim of this report is to highlight salient developments in education. The approach adopted is to present in a summarized manner the educational indicators either in a tabular or graphic form by region. Textual material is reduced to a minimum. This style of presentation was preferred in an attempt to simplify the nature of statistical documents so as to enlarge the readership. Specialized statistical documents exist on the topics discussed in this report and the reader is referred to UNESCO's Statistical Yearbook in particular.

The indicators presented in this report are selected to highlight two particular themes - International Literacy Year and Education for All which are of major concern to UNESCO. It includes statistics and data on education before the first level, education at the first and the second levels, public expenditure on education, demographic and enrolment prospects in the year 2000 and illiteracy trends and prospects.

AUSTRALIA

Lokan, Jan and Phillip McKenzie eds. *Teacher appraisal: issues and approaches*. Hawthorn, Victoria, Australian Council for Educational Research, 1989. 191 p. (Australian Educational Review, No. 28).

This book is an edited collection of commissioned papers that discuss, from an Australian perspective, the major issues associated with appraising teachers and their work. It comprises five main sections: the context of teacher appraisal, teacher appraisal in practice; the state of the art in teacher evaluation; the challenge of teacher appraisal; and an intensive annotated guide to the relevant literature. Fourteen authors have contributed to the publication. They provide a broad range of perspectives and opinions on the issues raised on teacher appraisal.

UNESCO. Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific. *Support services for computer education in Australia*, by Marilyn Fleer and Andrew Stout. Bangkok, 1991. 71 p. (Asia and the Pacific Programme

of Educational Innovation for Development. Technical paper on Computer Education 2)

Countries of Asia and the Pacific are moving rapidly into the use of computers in education. As part of UNESCO's support for such development, and to promote the sharing of innovative experiences, expertise and materials, the Asia and the Pacific Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID) has produced and disseminated widely a Multi-media Training Package in Computer Education for Teacher Educators in 1988 and a Guidebook on the Development, Dissemination and Evaluation of Computer Educational Software in 1990. Regional and national training workshops have been organized using these materials to familiarize national personnel with the basic concepts, approaches, methodologies and techniques.

The paper outlines computer education programmes in Australia using two case studies from Western Australia (WA) and The Australian Capital Territory (ACT). A brief outline of computer education courses in other states and territories is included. The authors also analyze and assess future directions of national computer education programmes, support structures and services in schools.

BANGLADESH

UNESCO. Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific. *Innovation in management of primary school construction: multi-purpose primary school buildings in Bangladesh*, by Fecadu Constantinos. Bangkok, 1988. 43 p. (Educational Building Report 18).

The study gives the design of the multi-purpose primary school construction in Bangladesh. The construction utilized appropriate technology carried out by the Lutheran World Service/Rangpur Dinajpur Rehabilitation Service in Bangladesh and Ministry of Education of that country.

The agreement between Ministry of Education and RDRS was made for the construction of 63 primary schools which started in October 1983. The design of the school was judged to be structurally sound, durable, architecturally functional and attractive, yet economical considering the initial cost as well as life span of the building. As there was a demand from the communities to have facilities which could be used for community functions, considering budgetary constraints, it was decided to design a single multi-purpose building which caters to all educational and social needs of the school and the community at large. The report provides architectural drawings, outlines construction technology process and gives a detailed cost breakdown of materials and labour.

CHINA, PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF

UNESCO. Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific. *Status of women in China*, by Wei Zhangling. Bangkok, 1989. 85 p. (Social and Human Sciences in Asia and the Pacific. RUSHSAP Series on monographs and occasional papers, 25).

This report by Professor Wei Zhangling of the Chinese Academy of Social Sciences, is part of the UNESCO project launched in 1986 to survey the status of women in seven countries in the Asian region.

The first chapter introduces the old Chinese society which has influenced the status of women in China in the areas of religious beliefs, social and cultural norms and values. It also provides information on the status of women in the family and legal systems, the women's liberation movement and women's organizations. The second chapter describes the socio-demographic profile of Chinese women, providing statistical data on education, employment, marriage and family, health and crime. The third chapter describes women's participation in various areas of public life such as education, economy and productive activities, political activities, social and cultural activities as well as presenting several tables of statistics.

The fourth chapter is about the specific problems of women, measures taken and efforts made to ameliorate and improve their condition. These include family planning and the one-child policy, continued discrimination against women in education and employment, bride price and wedding expenses. The last chapter provides information on the priorities for future action. There is a short bibliography added at the end for further references.

INDIA

India. National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration. *Education for All by 2000; Indian perspective*. New Delhi, 1990. 107 p.

This book is an analytical study of various aspects of basic education in India. It attempts to indicate possible directions to achieve education for all. The study highlights the critical need for basic education as one of the survival needs of the country. The study attempts to capture the special requirements of different disadvantaged groups such as women, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. The process of education including content, evaluation and teacher education are examined and discussed. A broad estimation of resource requirements has also been attempted.

JAPAN

Yoshiya Abe, ed. *University sector higher education in Japan*. Research Institute for Higher Education. Hiroshima University. Hiroshima, 1989

In Japan, at present, higher education is divided into three sectors: the first includes the university sector which normally requires four years for the first degree (except six years for dentistry and medicine), two years for masters degree and three years for the doctorate degree.

The second sector is the non-university sector (NUS) which offers educational courses requiring full-time attendance for two years. Here the student must be 18 when admitted to the school. Japan has 62 technical colleges and special training schools throughout the country. Some training schools start from age 15 at which one may enter a senior high school until age 20 which entitles the student to graduate from Junior College. The third sector provides vocational and practical courses like dressmaking, cooking, typing etc. The courses for all admissions require the completion of lower secondary or upper secondary schooling.

The book describes information on non-university sector education, the organizational patterns of these institutions, finance and administration, employment of graduates and socio-economic role in national development.

LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

UNESCO. Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific. *Status of women: Laos*. Bangkok, 1989. 50 p. (Social and Human Sciences in Asia and the Pacific. RUSHSAP Series on monographs and occasional papers, 29).

This is a country report on the status of women in the Lao People's Democratic Republic, prepared by the Lao Women's Union for the UNESCO project, launched in 1986 to survey the status of women in seven countries in the Asian region.

The report is divided into five chapters. The first chapter is an introduction which presents the background about the land and the people, the history, place of women in traditional Laotian society, history of women's movements and women's organization.

The second chapter provides information on the country's total population and sectoral demographic profile. The third chapter covers women's participation in public life such as in education, economy and productive activities, political activities, social and cultural activities. The fourth chapter outlines discrimination against women in public life, problems associated with marriage, prostitution, nutrition level of girls and women,

women of ethnic minorities, women's participation in national development programme and the special women's welfare programme, maternity protection and family planning.

The fifth chapter gives the priorities for future action in many ways such as income generating activities, promotion of health education, promotion of basic literacy and education. The last chapter is a bibliography which gives further references. The report encourages interested agencies to organize their data base and develop a pool to continuously generate data and update the profile of women.

MALDIVES

Maldives, Republic of. Ministry of Education. *Basic education and literacy programme*. 1990. 16 p.

This is a report about the educational system in the Maldives, focusing on the country's basic education and literacy programmes. The Maldives consists of 1,190 islands and 26 natural atolls. The government established an Atoll Education Centre and an Atoll Primary School in each atoll. The Atoll Education Centres have been designed to be the focal points for the improvement of the quality of education and the provision to adults of a non-formal education which includes literacy classes, cultural activities and training in handicrafts, health, fishing, agriculture, etc.

Male island provides secondary education and teacher education with no university education. Basic education in Maldives is divided into three age groups (a) the 11-15 years age group who takes up primary curriculum; (b) the 16-25 years age group who takes up vocational skills; and (c) the 26-45 years age group who covers literacy only.

UNESCO. Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific. *Status of women: Maldives*. Bangkok, 1989. 58 p. (Social and Human Sciences in Asia and the Pacific. RUSHSAP Series on monographs and occasional papers, 28)

In 1986, a project was launched by UNESCO to survey the status of women in seven countries in the Asian region. Maldives is one of the seven countries. The report deals with the social and demographic profile of women; women's participation in public life; efforts to ameliorate the situation of women; and priorities for future action. A bibliography is also found at the end of the book.

The introduction presents the profile of women in the areas of religion, legal status and women's movements and organizations. Chapter

Two provides information on total population, sectoral demographic profile with statistics on education, employment, marriage/family, health and crime. Chapter Three describes women's participation in public life such as in education, economy and productive activities, political activities, social and cultural activities.

The fourth chapter analyses the discrimination against women in public life, problems associated with marriage, violence and sexual harassment, maternity protection, and family planning, women in disadvantaged groups and minority communities, nutrition level of girls and women, women's participation in national development programmes and special welfare programmes. The last chapter analyses and gives suggestions for further studies in the future.

NEPAL

Crowley, Peter. *The Seti project; education for rural development in Nepal*, prepared for Ministry of Education and Culture, HMG/Nepal, UNDP, UNICEF, UNESCO and the World Bank. Kathmandu, 1990. 70 p.

This is a report about the activities of the Seti Project which is a project on education for rural development in Nepal. The Seti Project, established in 1981, was designed with UNESCO assistance and has been mainly funded by HMG/Nepal, UNDP, UNICEF and AGFUND. The project comprises a number of programme activities concerning the establishment of resource centres, The Cheli Beti programme, adult education, village reading centres, short-term training programmes, long-term training programme, school building and physical improvement programme, and development inputs. Statistical data concerning the above mentioned project are shown in the annex of the report.

PAKISTAN

Pakistan. Mukhtar Ahmad Bhatti, Humala Khalid, Shahnaz Shireen and Faisel Saeed. *Female teachers in rural Pakistan (problems and remedies)*. National Education Council. Islamabad, 1988. 282 p.

The research is aimed at studying the feasibilities of setting up hostels for female teachers working in rural Pakistan. To promote universalization of primary education among girls in Pakistan, the proper incentives for female teachers to work in those rural areas is the main focus of the document. The study describes the various factors and basic problems of female teachers working in those rural areas such as background of teachers, their educational attainment, professional training, marital status,

as well as provision of hostel accommodation, transport facilities and teachers' personal security.

REPUBLIC OF KOREA

Hyde, Georgie D.M. *South Korea; education, culture and economy*. London, Macmillan, 1988. 287 p.

This is a comprehensive study about the developments of South Korea, especially in education, culture and economy. It shows the rapid development of vocational and technical skills within the schools which had a profound impact on the country's capacity to industrialize and develop new technologies. It also gives detailed information on the role of women in South Korea from the traditional family patterns to high school education, vocational training, women's colleges and universities and women's organizations. Other development areas covered include farm and fisheries, politics, health and social affairs and relationship with neighbours and friends.

Korea, R. Ministry of Education. *Educational development in Korea 1986-1988*. Seoul, 1989. 86 p.

This report was compiled for presentation to the 41st Session of the International Conference on Education, Geneva, 9-17 January 1989. The report describes the organization and structure of the educational systems; educational development 1986-1988, problems and difficulties; international co-operation; and follow-up to OCE recommendations.

SOCIALIST REPUBLIC OF VIET NAM

UNESCO. Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific. *Status of women: Vietnam*. Bangkok, 1989. 89 p. (Social and Human Science in Asia and the Pacific. RUSHSAP Series on monographs and occasional papers, 30).

This is a country report prepared by Dr. Ngo Ba Thanh, Vice-President of the Viet Nam Women's Union, in response to the project launched in 1988 by UNESCO on the status of women in seven countries in the Asian region.

The first chapter describes the status of women in Viet Nam from the 17th century to the present time. The second and third chapters provide information on the social demographic profile and statistical data on women. It also gives detailed information on women's education, employment, marriage and family, health and how women participate in various areas of

public life such as in education, economic and industry, in politics, and other socio-economic activities.

The fourth chapter describes the 54 ethnic minority groups' women who live in the territory of reunified Viet Nam which comprised 12 per cent of the total population. It also refers to the population education and family planning programmes with reference to the constitution on marriage and family law. The fifth chapter analyses the present situation of women in the different spheres of social life identifying their specific problems and the measures taken to ameliorate their situation. The last chapter contains a useful bibliography and the annex gives statistical information on education in Viet Nam.

SRI LANKA

Sri Lanka. National Institute of Education. Non-formal and Technical Education Division. *Non-formal education for human resource development; action research project Ridimaliyadde (NORAD)* by S.B. Ekkanayake. Maharagama, 1990. 99 p. (Action Research Series No. 2)

The report provides the result of the action research programme for school-leavers in Ridimaliyadde Village, Badulla District, Sri Lanka. The project was conducted by National Institute of Education with financial assistance of NORAD Development Co-operation.

The first part deals with background information of the educational system and formal education in Sri Lanka and the reason why the government tried to synchronize non-formal education with formal education. The project aims to develop the human resources of the village by providing and developing skills for the youth. Before designing the proposal for village development, NIE sent a preliminary fact-finding mission to identify the major problems of the village. These included maternal factors, human factors, environmental problems and way of living. This data was used as basic background to provide technical training programmes for out-of-school youths.

The annex in the last part gives observations and recommendations of the course and suggestions for improvement.

THAILAND

Sujatanond, Chanpavit. *Basic education for all, a mission possible; Thailand's illustrative case and EFA action plan*, prepared for World Conference on Education for All, Meeting Basic Learning Needs,

Jomtien, Thailand, 5-9 March 1990. Bangkok, Amarin Printing Group Co., Ltd. 1990. 36 p.

This book describes basic education in Thailand and gives detailed information on the current statistics of formal primary education on the one hand and literacy education for adults on the other.

Divided into eight chapters, the publication presents the historical development of basic education, policy implementation, current profile of basic education, target clienteles, exemplars of programmes and projects and future EFA plan of action. It describes the National Education Scheme based on the First National Education Development Plan (NED Plan) concerning basic education. The last chapter concentrates on future planning of 'Education for All' in Thailand.

Thailand Substance Committee in preparation for the WCEFA 1990. *Thai education in perspective; framework for development of life-long learning network*. Bangkok, Amarin Printing Groups, 1990. 20 p.

This book traces educational development in Thailand and suggests how to adjust the structure of education to suit Thai citizens in the context of changing national needs. It explains that the National Education Scheme of 1977 which was based on the prevailing socio-economic and political context at that time does not now address the emerging needs of the country. This book recommends that the conceptual framework for educational development should be adjusted to ensure that the citizens will be encouraged to develop themselves appropriately and in accordance with the future needs of the country. It enumerates guidelines for developing the National Education Plan's framework.

Thailand. Ministry of Education. International Conference on Education, 41st Session, Geneva, 1988. *Development of education: 1986-1988*. Bangkok, 1988. 25 p.

This document traces the development of education in Thailand from 1986 to 1988 in terms of its organization and structure, educational development and problems and difficulties. The first section describes the principles, aims and objectives of the National Education Scheme 1977; the systems of administration and management; the financing schemes and the organization of the education system.

The second section discusses the objectives of the Sixth National Education Development Plan, the policies that had been formulated in various areas of education, the efforts made to expand education both quantitatively and qualitatively at the secondary level, out-of-school

programmes and the various activities implemented under educational research. The third section looks at problems and difficulties of the education plan and also provides some educational statistics in 1986 such as the number of illiterate children and student drop-outs.

Thailand. Ministry of Education. Department of Non-Formal Education. *Case studies on the participation of literacy volunteers in the national literacy campaign project*. Bangkok, 1987. 134 p.

The study is divided into three parts. The first part presents a retrospective overview of the literacy campaign in Thailand 1940-1987, which includes four periods, namely, the Mass Literacy Campaign of 1940-1945; Adult Basic Education programme of 1948-1960; the Experimental Functional Literacy Programme of 1966-1971 and the Second National Literacy Campaign of 1984-1987, which were all aimed at developing reading and writing abilities and reading habits.

The second part provides 45 case studies of literacy volunteers from different regions of the country. In each case study, background information, opinions and perspectives of volunteer teachers (who were recruited from the villagers of the communities) are described. The last part contains the conclusions and suggestions of the campaign project.

Thailand. Office of the National Education Commission. The National Institute of Development and Administration. *Report on the quality of rural primary schooling in Thailand: a case study of four primary schools in Central and North-Eastern Thailand*. Bangkok, 1987.

The purpose of this research was to study the quality and the relevance of primary education to the Thai rural environment and needs. Using anthropological fieldwork methods, this study is expected to contribute to future education, more specifically management and administration, at the micro-level in schools. The study describes the research background and methodology, the quality of rural education, communities and their schools; monitoring process used to determine the quality of primary school-leavers; the relevance of primary education (its objectives, curricular-contents) the country's needs and the reality of life. The last chapter is devoted to discussion and recommendations.

SOURCES AND ADDRESSES OF DOCUMENTS REVIEWED IN THIS ISSUE

AUSTRALIA

Australian Council for
Educational Research (ACER)
Radford House
Frederick Street
Hawthorn, Vic. 3122

GERMANY

Germany Adult Education
Association
Deutscher Volkshochschul-Verband
Fachstelle Fur Internationale
Zusammenarbeit
Rheinallee 1
D-5300 Bonn 2

UNESCO Institute for
Education (UIE)
Feldbrunnenstrasse 58
D-2000 Hamburg 13

FRANCE

UNESCO
7, Place de Fontenoy
75700 Paris

NEW ZEALAND

New Zealand Council
for Educational Research
P.O. Box 3237
Wellington

SENEGAL

UNESCO Regional Office for
Education in Africa
B.P. 3311
Dakar

SINGAPORE

Southeast Asia Research Review
and Advisory Group
c/o Chopman Publishers
865 Mountbatten Road
#05-28/29 Katong Shopping
Centre
Singapore 1543

THAILAND

UNESCO Principal Regional
Office for Asia and the Pacific
P.O. Box 967, Prakanong Post
Office
Bangkok 10110

INDONESIA

The Office of Educational and
Cultural Research and Development
(Balitbang Dikbud)
Ministry of Education and Culture
Jalan Jenderal Sudirman - Senayen
Jakarta, Pusat

IVORY COAST

UNICEF Regional Office for
West and Central Africa
04 B.P.
443 Abidjan
04 Cote d'Ivoire

UNITED KINGDOM

Commonwealth Secretariat
Marlborough House
Pall Mall
London, SW1Y 5HX

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

World Bank
1818 H. Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20433

UNESCO PRINCIPAL REGIONAL OFFICE FOR ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

Recent publications
(Supplement to List of Publications, 1991)

Regional Education Programmes in Asia and the Pacific (REPAP). *Bulletin of the UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, No. 31. After the World Conference on Education for All* (in preparation)

(US$12.00)

Education in Asia and the Pacific: Review, reports and notes, No. 26, 1989-1990 (in preparation)

(US$5.00)

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Periodicals of Asia and the Pacific, No. 77 (January-June 1991)

HIGHER EDUCATION

UNESCO Regional Conference on Perspective of Main Trends and Issues Facing Higher Education in Asia and the Pacific, University of New England, Armidale, NSW, Australia, 14-18 October 1990. *Trends and issues facing higher education in Asia and the Pacific*. Bangkok, 1991. 111 p.

(US$3.00)

ASIA-PACIFIC PROGRAMME OF EDUCATION FOR ALL (APPEAL)

APPEAL National Studies Series: Bangladesh, China, India, Indonesia, Lao People's Democratic, Malaysia, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Thailand, Vietnam, A Regional Overview.

(US$30.00)

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT SERVICE (EPMS)

Reports

UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific. *New training strategies in educational planning and management; report*. Bangkok, UNESCO, 1991. 49 p.

(US$2.00)

ASIA AND THE PACIFIC PROGRAMME OF EDUCATIONAL INNOVATION FOR DEVELOPMENT (APEID)

Computer Science Education

UNESCO. Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific. *Guidebook for the development, distribution and evaluation of educational software*. Bangkok, 1990. 1 v. (various paging) and a diskette.

(US$22.00)

_____. _____. *Support services for computer education teachers in Australia*. Bangkok, 1991. 71 p.

(US$3.00)

Educational Forecasting

Roy-Singh, Raja. *Education for the twenty-first century: Asia-Pacific perspectives*. UNESCO, Bangkok, 1991. 93 p.

(US$3.00)

Science and Technology Education

APEID. *Science for all and the quality of life*. Bangkok, 1991. 121 p.

_____ *Value and ethics and the science and technology curriculum*. Bangkok, UNESCO, 1991. 116 p.

_____ *Science curriculum for meeting real-life needs of young learners*. Bangkok, UNESCO, 1991. 77 p.

APEID. *Nurturing and identifying talents in mathematics, science and technology*. Bangkok, UNESCO, 1991. 30 p.

_____. *Teacher training for science and technology education reform*. Bangkok, UNESCO, 1991. 79 p.

_____. *Popularization of science and technology: delivery systems for out-of-school science activities including Regional Science Olympiad*. Bangkok, UNESCO, 1991. 58 p.

_____. *Preparing ASEAN for the information century: a comparative study of policies and programmes on computers in science and mathematics education*. Bangkok, UNESCO, 1991. 169 p.

Technical/Vocational Education/Work Experience

UNESCO Sub-Regional Workshop on Promotion of Integrated Education of Disabled Children in Regular Primary Schools. Quezon City, Philippines, 2-8 October 1990. *Report*. Bangkok, UNESCO, 1990. 63 p.

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Reprint Series: No. E.8, *Classroom furniture made of wood*.

POPULATION EDUCATION PROGRAMME SERVICE

Population Education in Asia and the Pacific Newsletter and Forum

No. 34, 1991
No. 35, 1991

Trends and strategies of action in population education for 1992-1995; report of a Regional Consultative Seminar on Population Education, Bangkok, 21-28 May 1990. Bangkok 1991. 99 p.

(US$4.00)

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Newsletters

AIDSED Newsletter
No. 3, 1991
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No. 5, 1991
No. 1, 1992